CANADIAN THESES ON MICROFICHE

THÈSES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE

National Library of Canada
Collections Development Branch

Canadian Theses on
Microfiche Service

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
Direction du développement des collections

Service des thèses canadiennes
sur microfiche

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us an inferior photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de qualité inférieure.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

NL 339 (r. 86/09)

Canada

0-315-19539-8

National Library of Canada
Canadian Theses Division
Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
Division des thèses canadiennes

197

67447

PERMISSION TO MICROFILM — AUTORISATION DE MICROFILMER

- Please print or type — Écrire en lettres moulées ou dactylographier

Full Name of Author — Nom complet de l'auteur
BARRIE THOMAS DICKIE

Date of Birth — Date de naissance
21. 1. 41.

Country of Birth — Lieu de naissance
AUSTRALIA

Permanent Address — Résidence fixe
FRESHWATER CREEK, R.M.D. BELMONT, VICTORIA,
AUSTRALIA 3216

Title of Thesis — Titre de la thèse
PORTRAIT OF A PRACTICUM

University — Université
UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Degree for which thesis was presented — Grade pour lequel cette thèse fut présentée
Ph. D.

Year this degree conferred — Année d'obtention de ce grade
1983

Name of Supervisor — Nom du directeur de thèse
DR. D.A. MACKAY

Permission is hereby granted to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

L'autorisation est, par la présente, accordée à la BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

L'auteur se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans l'autorisation écrite de l'auteur.

Date
22ND July, 1983

Signature
Barrie T. Dickie

NL-91 (4/77)

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

PORTRAIT OF A PRACTICUM

by

© BARRIE THOMAS DICKIE

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA
FALL, 1983

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR Barrie Thomas Dickie

TITLE OF THESIS Portrait of a Practicum

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED Doctor of Philosophy

YEAR THIS DEGREE GRANTED 1983

Permission is hereby granted to THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA LIBRARY to reproduce single copies of this thesis and to lend or sell such copies for private, scholarly or scientific research purposes only.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

(Signed) . . Barrie T Dickie . . .

PERMANENT ADDRESS:

Freshwater Creek
R.M.D. Belmont
Victoria
Australia 3216

DATED 22nd July 1983

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Portrait of a Practicum" submitted by Barrie Thomas Dickie in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Supervisor

R.G. McIntosh

Chester S. Bumberger

External Examiner

Date 18th July 1983

To Beverley, Matthew

Fleur and Rachel

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to use the responsive evaluation approach of Robert Stake to examine the Elementary Teaching Practicum at a small Canadian university. The Practicum was taken to be all the compulsory school experience plus some defined university course work.

The foci of the exploration were issues identified as areas of interest and/or concern by members of the university Faculty of Education.

The issues selected for detailed examination related to theory-practice integration, the faculty, cooperating teachers and students.

The methodology was naturalistic in nature, and involved the collection of seven kinds of data which were used to support interpretations made concerning the issues.

The study concluded with some suggestions for further research and a speculative section in which two tentative hypotheses about teacher education institutions were put forward. It is the researcher's contention that these hypotheses have general applicability.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank the following people for invaluable assistance during the writing of this dissertation:

Dr. A. MacKay for his combined role as advisor and therapist.

Dr. C. Bumbarger, Dr. M. Horowitz and Dr. G. McIntosh for their constant encouragement and help, especially at the time of candidacy.

Dr. D. Muttart for consenting to act as external examiner and for raising some difficult but important questions at the oral examination.

The Dean, Associate Dean and faculty members of Montview University who allowed me to collect data and who frequently went out of their way to help. I regret that the policy of anonymity for the research site prevents me from naming several faculty members whose help and friendship meant a great deal to me and my family.

The students of the Faculty of Education, Montview University for their openness and willingness to take time from busy programs to talk to me.

The cooperating teachers, principals and administrators, Department of Education officials, School Trustees' Association officials of Montview and rural areas who contributed valuable insights to the study.

Lesley Iles, Ruth McIntosh and my wife, Beverley, for typing thesis drafts, usually against impossible time constraints.

Margaret Voice for fast, accurate typing of the final draft and constant cheerfulness when presented with last-minute alterations.

Professor J. G. Wallace, Dean of the School of Education, Deakin University, Australia for encouragement to undertake this study and Professor F. Jevons, Vice-Chancellor for approval of the study leave proposal.

My wife, Beverley, for moral support, especially when the light at the end of the tunnel grew dim.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter Page

1 INTRODUCTION 1

Outline of This Chapter 2

Background to the Study 2

Historical Interest in the Practicum 2

Pilot Programs 5

A Large-Scale Innovative Program 6

Purpose of the Study 7

Statement of the Problem 7

Sub-Problems 8

Nature of the Study 9

Paradigm 9

Epistemology 10

Design 10

Significance of the Study 11

Theoretical Significance 11

Practical Significance 12

Role of the Researcher 12

Definition of Terms 13

Limitations 14

Delimitations 16

Organization of the Thesis 16

2 THE ELEMENTARY PRACTICUM 19

The Education Degree at Montview 19

First Year School Experience—'Involvement' 20

Chapter Page

EdGen126 20
Second Year—'The Pre-internship Year' 22
The EdGen226 Cycle 22
Other Features of EdGen226 28
Modules 28
O.C.R.E. (Off-Campus Residential Experience) . . 28
Two week block in field 33
Other Courses in Second Year 33
Evaluation of School Practice—Second Year 33
Third Year—The Internship Year 35
Special Internship Seminars 35
Evaluation of School Practice—Third Year 39
Fourth Year 40
Further Faculty Involvement with the Practicum . . . 40
Supervision of Student Teaching 40
Faculty Advisor Workshops 41
Cooperating Teacher Workshops 42
Internal Research on the Practicum 42
Summary 43
3 METHODOLOGY 44
Introduction 44
Plan of the Chapter 44
Problems with Quantitative Educational Research . . 45
Limited Usefulness to Practitioners 45
An Epistemological Note 45

Chapter Page

Changes during Evaluations 47

Summary: The Case against the Quantitative Paradigm in Behavioral Science 47

Strengths of Qualitative Educational Research 48

Rapprochement between Paradigms 51

A Note on Fashion in Research 51

Choice of a Method: Responsive Evaluation 52

Carrying out Responsive Evaluation 55

Relevance Versus Rigor 55

Summary 59

Entry to the Research Site 60

Memorandum of Agreement 60

Consent Form 61

Anonymity of Research Site 61

Data Collection 62

Documents 62

Questionnaires 62

Observation 63

Interviews 64

Participant Observers' Perspectives 66

Modified Judicial Evaluation 67

Use of Photography 68

Data Treatment 70

Rigor Versus Relevance: Authenticity Notes 73

Intrinsic Adequacy (Internal Validity) 74

Extrinsic Adequacy (External Validity) 77

Chapter Page

Replicability (Reliability) 78

Neutrality (Objectivity) 79

Ethical Issues 80

Summary 81

4 THEORY-PRACTICE INTEGRATION 83

The Literature 83

Official Policies 84

Provincial Teachers' Federation Policy 84

Social Science and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC) 85

Perceived Importance of Theory-Practice Integration 85

Concerns about Poor Theory-Practice Integration 87

Examples of Good Theory-Practice Integration . . . 89

Techniques for Improving Theory-Practice Integration 91

General Principles 91

Specific Techniques 92

A Broader View of Theory-Practice Integration . . 95

Data and Interpretations 98

Nature of Theory-Practice Integration 99

What is Meant by Theory-Practice Integration at Montview University? 99

Introduction 99

Written statements by program people at Montview 100

University administration attitude 101

Chapter Page

Program arrangements for theory-practice integration 101

What Happens to Students during Theory-Practice Integration? 102

Views of other interested parties 103

Theory-Practice Integration—Past, Present and Future 104

Theory-Practice Integration in the Program 104

First Year Experience 105

Second Year—The Pre-internship Year 106

Problems with the crammed fall semester schedule 107

Specific elements of the Pre-internship year 111

Third Year—The Internship Year 112

Fourth Year—No School Practice 115

Where Does the Theory Come From? 118

Is Theory-Practice Integration Seen to be Effective? 122

Micro-teaching—School Practice Match 123

Micro-teaching 124

Subject Area Class—EdGen226 Integration 128

Content-Independent Skills 130

Micro-teaching—A Modified Judicial Evaluation . . . 135

The Case for Micro-teaching 136

Micro-teaching: A Second Look 142

Micro-teaching: A Reaction to Two Critiques . . . 147

Summary 160

Chapter Page

5 THE FACULTY AND ITS RELATIONSHIPS 161

Workload and Work Quality 162

Workload Literature 162

Quality of Work Literature 163

Possible Solutions from the Literature 165

Data and Interpretation 167

Problems of Excessive Workloads 167

Suggested Solutions to the Workload Problem . . 170

Problems of Faculty Advisor Quality 172

Solutions 176

Summary 177

Faculty as Innovators 177

The Literature 177

Reasons for the Decay of Innovations 178

Forces For and Against Change 179

The Data 180

Weick's Loose Coupling 180

University Policy 181

The Survival of the New Program 181

Faculty Opinions about Continual Change 182

An Important Innovator 184

The Faculty in Interorganizational Relationships . . 185

The Literature 185

Perceived Importance of Interorganizational Relationships 186

Interorganizational Relationships in Practice . 186

Chapter Page

Normative Statements about Interorganizational Relationships 188

Data and Interpretations 188

The Marrett Hypothesis 188

Boundary Spanners at Montview 190

The Current Status of Montview Interorganizational Relationships 191

Interpersonal Relationships 193

The Literature 193

Introduction 194

Power in Interpersonal Relationships 194

How to Improve Relationships 196

Interpersonal Relationships at Montview 196

Data and Interpretations 197

Faculty-Student Relationships 197

Good relationships 197

Relationships causing concern 199

Faculty-Cooperating Teacher Relationships . . . 202

Intra-Faculty Relationships 204

Individual resentment 204

Team A and Team B 205

Summary 207

6 STUDENTS AND COOPERATING TEACHERS 208

Cooperating Teachers, Their Recruitment, Training and Quality 208

The Literature 208

Recruitment 209

Chapter Page

Cooperating Teacher Training 210

Cooperating Teacher Quality 211

Data 212

Recruitment of Cooperating Teachers 212

Training of Cooperating Teachers 214

Cooperating Teacher Quality 216

Socialization 220

The Literature 220

Data 223

Cooperating Teacher-Student Relationships 226

The Literature 227

Data 229

General Comments 229

The Internship Seminar 231

Clinical Supervision 232

Students as Change Agents 234

The Literature 234

The Present Situation 235

Developing Innovative Students 236

Data 237

Student Selection 239

The Literature 239

Introduction 239

The Problem 240

Remediation 241

Chapter Page

Data 244

Concerns 244

The Current Situation 246

To Improve Selection 248

Student Teaching Stages 254

The Literature 254

The Data 256

Summary 259

7 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 260

Summary 260

Conclusions 262

The Hypotheses 264

Hypothesis 1. The Importance of a Key Innovator 264

Hypothesis 2. The Critical Size Hypothesis . . 267

Interaction of Issues Identified in the Study . . . 269

Reflections on the Methodology Used in the Study 271

Responsive Evaluation 271

Data 271

Implications for Further Research 274

Teacher Education Research 274

Specific Research 276

Personal Statement about the Montview Practicum . . 277

Use of the Report 278

BIBLIOGRAPHY 280

Page

APPENDIX 1. MEMORANDUM TO MONTVIEW EDUCATION FACULTY 300

APPENDIX 2. INVITATION TO ATTEND SPECIAL INTERNSHIP SEMINAR 303

APPENDIX 3. REPLY TO INVITATION TO ATTEND SEMINAR 305

APPENDIX 4. MEMORANDUM OF AGREEMENT 307

APPENDIX 5. CONSENT FORM 312

APPENDIX 6. EXAMPLE OF A PARTICIPANT OBSERVER'S PERSPECTIVE GIVEN TO MONTVIEW RESPONDENTS AS A GUIDE 314

APPENDIX 7. PARTICIPANT OBSERVER'S PERSPECTIVE: 1 316

APPENDIX 8. PARTICIPANT OBSERVER'S PERSPECTIVE: 2 319

APPENDIX 9. PARTICIPANT OBSERVER'S PERSPECTIVE: 3 322

APPENDIX 10. BIOGRAPHICAL DATA ON THE RESEARCHER 325

LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

1 School Experience in the Montview University Elementary Education Program 21

2 Teaching Skills Studied in EdGen226, 1982/83 23

3 The EdGen226 Cycle for Four Weeks 26

4 Part of Fall O.C.R.E. Activities Timetable 34

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

1 Prominent Events in a Responsive Evaluation 56

2 A Layout of Statements and Data to be Collected by the Evaluator of an Educational Program 57

LIST OF PLATES

Plate Page

1 Student 'Roger Brown' Micro-teaching 25

2 'Roger Brown' Receives Feedback on His Lesson 25

3 'Roger Brown' Teaches a Real Class on Wednesday . . . 27

4 Site of the Off-Campus Residential Experience (O.C.R.E.) 30

5 First Night at O.C.R.E. 30

6 Students Report to Their Section 31

7 It's Easy Looking On 32

8 It's Different When You Have to Do It Yourself 32

9 Intern and Cooperating Teacher at Special Internship Seminar 37

10 Prelude to Exercise in Communicating Feelings 37

11 Micro-teaching on Juggling Skills 38

12 Pre-conferences Prior to Micro-teaching 38

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

This study is about learning to teach. It is a topic which has interested the researcher for twenty five years since his own period of training to become a high school teacher in Australia. Specifically, the study focuses on the school experience component of the elementary teacher preparation program of one small Canadian university.

One hundred and ten years ago, the researcher's great-grandfather, Thomas Spowart, learned to teach by a process known as 'pupil teaching' (Austin, 1961:234,235). Students began pupil teaching after completing their own schooling, at ages as young as thirteen. It involved four years of teaching under the supervision of accredited teachers, required the pupil teachers to study before and after school, paid them twenty pounds per year and, not at all coincidentally, provided the State with an enormous reservoir of cheap pedagogical labor. It was an exploitative system, but it at least provided a very thorough apprenticeship in practical teaching.

Eighty five years later, the researcher became a qualified high school teacher after spending a grand total of forty five days in schools (three weeks each in three different schools) and having taught a total of less than seventy lessons.

Montview University (a pseudonym), on which this study focuses, provides its elementary teaching students with more than one hundred days in schools, during which time each student teaches over three hundred lessons.

The study is a detailed examination of this school experience and the associated university classes, as seen through the eyes of the students, faculty and members of several other groups with an interest in the Montview Practicum.

Outline of This Chapter

In this chapter, a brief mention is made of the long-standing interest in, and importance attributed to, practica in teacher education. This is followed by a statement of the purpose of the study and a list of some of the questions which are addressed in it. The nature of the study and where it may be placed relative to current research paradigms is then discussed. This is followed by some remarks about the possible theoretical and practical significance of the research. A lexicon of some terms accorded a specific usage in the dissertation is provided, a listing of limitations and delimitations follows, and the chapter ends with an outline of the organization of the thesis.

Background to the Study

Historical Interest in the Practicum

In 1963, Conant stated that "the one indisputably essential element in professional education is practice teaching" (p. 142). Zeichner (1978:15), although acknowledging that student teaching is the most strongly approved part of teacher education, pointed out that some scholars seriously questioned its usefulness, usually on the grounds that it merely socialized student teachers into existing practices and attitudes. Much earlier than this, a great deal of interest was being shown in the organization and implementation of student teaching. Some present-day education professors may be piqued to learn that many 'modern' innovations were discussed in 1926 by Showalter. He argued the case for student demonstration lessons to be followed by actual classroom placements, with a college teacher supervising the exercise. He foresaw the need for supervision classes to be offered to school superintendents, principals and experienced teachers, and even foreshadowed clinical supervision when he wrote of conferences to be held before and after lessons. Five years later, in 1931, Baugher lamented the problems involved in integrating the practical component of teacher training into the rest of the program, and wrote of the need for more time to be provided for cooperating teachers to confer with college personnel. Fifty years later, these topics are still unresolved issues in teacher education programs.

In an effort to make predictions about future Canadian English-language teacher training, Clarke and Coutts (1972) used a modified Delphi technique with forty senior faculty members in universities and teachers' colleges. Most of the respondents concurred in the prediction that teacher education will be centred around an extended internship by 1983 (ibid.:30). Unfortunately, the exact meaning of 'centred around' was not made clear. If it only means 'will include,' the prediction will probably attain fulfillment. Stronger meanings of 'centred around' seem less likely to come to pass. Faith in the technique used in this study must be vitiated by some of the other predictions whose dates have already expired. For example, over 90% of respondents believed that teacher education students would be required to exhibit satisfactory standards of excellence in English usage by 1975. Regrettably, in 1982, that was still not the case. (The researcher taught more than eighty first and second year education students in a Canadian university in 1981 and 1982. Very few were capable of writing a one thousand word essay without serious errors of grammar, syntax or expression. Of thirty one third year elementary students who completed a short questionnaire at another Canadian university, more than half made errors of English usage. While both these groups may be atypical, there can be little doubt that by 1982 many education students still did not exhibit excellence in English usage.)

Among the problems which still engage people interested in teacher education are the following:

1. The lack of training opportunities for cooperating teachers (Hopkins, 1980:13; Seiferth and Holliday, 1980; Thies-Sprinthall, 1980:17-30).

2. The lack of rapport between student teachers and cooperating teachers (Yee, 1971:315).

3. The perceived irrelevance of college or university courses to the 'real world' of teaching (Lowe, 1982:43).

4. The widespread belief that college or university faculty are aloof from the practical problems of student teaching, placing philosophical speculation before the day-to-day problems of learning

to teach children[1] (II, 1979; III, 1980:28; Conant, 1963:143; Theory to Practice, 1981:37; Lowe, 1982:43).

5. The ubiquity of misunderstandings and animosity between college or university staff, teachers' unions, education departments, university central administrations, trustees' associations, and student organizations (Wideen, Hopkins and Fullan, 1980:28; Hopkins, 1980:8; Hopkins, 1982; Theory to Practice, 1981:43; Patterson, 1982:11).

The recent trend to longer practica, at least in Canadian universities, might have been expected to provide the impetus for teachers and university faculty members to address and solve these problems. Indeed, there is evidence that at least in one institution, the problem of misunderstandings between interested parties has been addressed and the situation improved (Ratsoy, Babcock and Caldwell, 1978:4,54). Other evidence, however, suggests that many of the problems are still seriously hindering the work of effectively training new teachers (The Management of Change in Teacher Education, 1979). Some notable exceptions to this generalization exist. Several of these are mentioned in the next two sections.

Pilot Programs

In 1967 at McGill University (Horowitz, 1974), in 1977 at the University of Utah (Davis and Davis, 1977) and currently at the University of British Columbia (Student Teaching Handbook, no author,

---

[1] Throughout the dissertation, reference is made to twenty authors or groups of authors by roman numeral rather than name. These are Montview faculty members and the code was used to preserve the anonymity of the research site. The titles are listed in the bibliography after the alphabetical section.

1978) and Deakin University, Australia (School Based Teacher Education within the Concept of a High Activity School, no author, 1981), attempts have been made to improve the student teaching experience of small, highly selected groups of students. (For more details on the programs see Chapter 4 of this dissertation.)

The organizers of these special programs generally regard the student teaching experience as a great improvement on the standard offering. However, it must be stressed that the groups are small, the students usually highly selected, the faculty time investment disproportionately large, and the judgement that the experience is better usually subjective. Even if such programs solved all the problems of school experience, there would still be serious practical problems associated with implementing the programs for all students.

A Large-Scale Innovative Program

There is a program at Montview University in Canada which appears to have not only successfully addressed and solved most of the problems mentioned, but also to have done so for all elementary teaching students at that university. Chapter 2 contains a detailed account of its structure.

The program has been evolving for six years, and although it still changes from year to year in response to participant feedback, its basic structure appears to be stable. Most of the problems which beset organizations contemplating and initiating change appear to have been overcome to a greater or lesser degree. This issue is discussed more fully in Chapter 5.

Purpose of the Study

The organizers of the Elementary Practicum at Montview University are, in the main, very strongly committed to it. They tend to make what appear to be extravagant claims about its success, both orally (Faculty member 1, 1982; Faculty member 2, 1982) and in writing (X, 1981). However, as Parlett and Hamilton wrote (1972:21) "To know whether a plan works, one has to look not only at the manuscript, but also at the performance." Lincoln and Guba (1982:66) made a similar point when they warned against being taken in by rhetoric and insisted on the need for studying actual practice. Miles (1981) made the point more colorfully when he referred to possible differences between head office versions and what really happens. He recommended a form of transactional evaluation to help tease out the actual facts.

The basic purpose of this study, then, was to examine the Montview Elementary Practicum in some depth, and to explore its important features as fully as possible. This could be justified on the grounds that if the claims referred to above could be substantiated, the program deserves wider publicity and should have an impact on current thinking about student teaching practice.

Statement of the Problem

People involved with the Montview Elementary Practicum claimed that it solved many of the common problems associated with student teaching practica, while producing teachers unusually skilled in communication (X, 1980). Further, the claim was made that the school experience had a number of positive effects on the schools involved

(Joint Field Experience Committee, 1981).

A number of subordinate problems have been identified. These appear below in the form of questions. Two points should be noted:

1. No claim is made that the questions are independent. Many will be related to others.

2. This list is the original list which was generated after reading some literature from Montview and speaking briefly to some Montview people. The expectation was that the list would be incomplete, and that other questions would arise after closer contact with the program. This occurred.

Sub-Problems

1. Are the attempts to integrate theory and practice successful?

2. Are the stated objectives of the Special Internship Seminar met? (These are (a) to develop the working relationship of the cooperating teacher and interns, (b) to develop skills in clinical supervision, (c) to begin the design of a developmental plan for the interns' growth as teachers.)

3. To what extent do cooperating teachers who attend the Seminar internalize the supervision process presented at the Seminars and promote it in their schools?

4. What is the nature of the relationship between the Faculty of Education, Provincial Teachers' Federation, and the Provincial Department of Education, in the running of the Seminars?

5. What is the nature of faculty/student relationships?

6. What is meant by the "development of self-actualizing

professional teachers" (X, 1980:3)?

7. Some school systems decline to release teachers to attend the Seminars. Are the experiences of the student teachers in these systems different from those in other systems? If so, how? (This question lapsed, because all school systems accepting student teachers release them and their cooperating teachers to attend Seminars.)

Nature of the Study

Paradigm

The study was an evaluative case study. It was an heuristic experiment in the Kaplan sense of seeking understanding (1964:149). In the Guba (1981) terminology, the study was plainly naturalistic, seeking not "context-free truth statements," but rather "working hypotheses" relating to a particular context (Guba, 1981:4).

Bogdan and Biklen (1982:38) noted an important feature of this type of study when they wrote:

> The subject of the study focuses instead [of trying to resolve ambiguity] on how various participants see and experience goals. It is multiple realities rather than a single reality which concern the qualitative researcher.

Codd (1981:29) expressed a similar belief when he wrote:

> In illuminative, responsive, or goal-free evaluation, however, it is explicitly acknowledged that the social reality under scrutiny can only be interpreted from different points of view.

In a spoof paper at the 1972 AERA conference titled "The Seven Principal Cardinals of Educational Evaluation," Stake (1972c:1) entertainingly made a number of serious points. One of these is relevant here: ". . . The evaluator has no cause to force a consensus, but certainly to show the distribution of perceptions."

Pointing out that the psychometric paradigm had often severely limited the questions able to be asked in educational research, Zeichner (1978:14) stated that there were situations where the features of interest were "embedded in the human interactions within the process of the event" (ibid.:41).

Notwithstanding the above caveats, in this study, quantitative methods were employed where they were appropriate. Jick (1979) and Zeichner (1978) argued that judicious combinations of both methods often buttressed the inherent weaknesses of each.

Epistemology

The study was hermeneutical in character. That is, its central purpose was to understand and interpret, its significant outcome was meanings and its mode of generalization was inductive and qualitative (Culbertson, 1981:6). It further assumed that knowledge about human and natural phenomena differs and that generalization about human phenomena, though characterized by reasoned objectivity, was not law-like or certain. The relationship between knowledge and practice was taken to be practical in nature, with policy and practice informed through understanding and interpretations of past events and contexts. (This section was adapted from a table "Contrasting Features of Logical Positivism, Hermeneutics and Critical Theory" in Culbertson (1981:6).)

Design

The design used was based on Stake's Responsive Evaluation (Stake, 1975b). This is outlined in some detail in Chapter 3. Essentially, a study is responsive evaluation if its orientation is more towards process than products, if it responds to audience requirements for information and if it refers to the value positions of program people when reporting on the success or failure of the program (Stake, 1975b).

Reporting in the current study was organized around issues as they evolved during the study.

Significance of the Study

This study may be seen to have potential significance, both in the theoretical and practical domains.

Theoretical Significance

As far as the researcher is aware, this is the first attempt to apply the set of assumptions and procedures known as Responsive Evaluation to a student teaching practicum. To the extent that the attempt has been successful, the study may be said to have inaugurated a new way of looking at the evaluation of student teaching practica.

More specifically, the final chapter lists some conjectures, suppositions and tentative hypotheses. These have been generated by the process of theoretical sampling:

> whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes and analyzes his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges. (Glaser and Strauss, 1967:45)

Although Glaser and Strauss labelled this process "the search for grounded theory," it seems to be the sort of commonsense approach which would be adopted by any enquirer seeking to understand a phenomenon as completely as possible.

Practical Significance

The greatest contribution an evaluator can make, according to Stake (1975b), is to assist program personnel to discover ideas and solutions in their own minds. One of the interesting and satisfying features of this study was that many of the problems cited by people associated with the program were capable of solution using ideas offered by other people in the program.

On a more modest scale, both Bates (1981) and Stake (1976b) suggested that evaluations are successful if they provoke self-reflection and thought about the program. The Bates (1981) study was actually accepted by its client with some disappointment until it was used as a discussion paper in a small-group format. Only then was "its potential for 'self-reflection and policy deliberations' . . . appreciated" (Bates, 1981:73). Cooper and Felder (1980) wrote of the need for continual evaluation of teacher education "by seeking reactions of those involved and interested." This study focussed on one part of a teacher education program and sought the reactions called for by Cooper and Felder.

McDonald (1976) and Reiff (1980) both pointed out that evaluations should promote recognition of value pluralism, and the acknowledgement by all parties that other people in the program react differently.

Role of the Researcher

Clearly, the researcher is in no position to insist that the people involved in the Montview Practicum consider the report carefully, meet to discuss sections of it, or indeed even read it. Its dual nature, as a doctoral dissertation and as a responsive evaluation, probably reduces its readability, and thus its usefulness. Nevertheless, it is the firm belief of the researcher that the report contains much material of practical significance for Montview University. In an attempt to make the material more accessible, multiple copies of the data and interpretation chapters are to be supplied to interested parties at Montview University. One copy of the whole dissertation is also to be supplied to the Dean of the Education Faculty.

Definition of Terms

1. The Elementary Practicum (referred to in the report as The Practicum). This is taken to include all three formal sets of school experience. This includes the seven half-days in Year One, the Wednesdays and last two weeks in Year Two, and the Extended Practicum of sixteen weeks in Year Three. The Practicum is also taken to include the courses labelled EdGen226 and Ed___218 which are integrated with the school experience in second year, the Off-Campus Residential Experience and the Internship Seminar.

2. Clients of the Responsive Evaluation. These are taken to be the Dean, Associate Dean, and faculty members of the Faculty of Education, Montview University.

3. Audience and Program Personnel. Although in some studies these would be two separate groups of people, here they are the same people. They include the clients as defined in number 2 above, elementary teaching students in the Faculty of Education, officers of the Provincial Teachers' Association, the Provincial Department of

Education and the Provincial School Trustees' Association, and the cooperating teachers who take or have taken students into their classrooms.

4. The Program. Unless it is made clear in the context that the program referred to is the larger teacher education program at Montview University, the term 'program,' when used, refers to the Elementary Practicum as defined in number 1 above.

5. Cooperating Teacher. This is a teacher who accepts Montview University students who observe and/or practise teaching the pupils in the classroom.

6. Faculty Advisor. This is a professor, graduate student or sessional instructor who visits Montview University students in schools to counsel them and check on their progress. He or she provides a link between the schools and the Faculty of Education at Montview University.

Limitations

1. Time was perhaps the major limitation. Because of personal time constraints, the researcher had to leave the site after a fourteen week engagement. It is highly likely that more time, more interviews, observations and document searches would have led to further insights. However, as explained in Chapter 3, there was a growing feeling of redundancy of information as the deadline for withdrawal approached.

2. Financial resources. Lack of money ruled out a videotaped judicial evaluation segment. Lack of time and money led to the

abandonment of plans to videotape incidents at the winter Off-Campus Residential Experience in an attempt to better illuminate its role in the program.

3. Reliance on respondents' perceptions and memory. In one sense, the important datum was the individual's perception of an event or situation. However, in situations where only one respondent claimed to have perceived an event in a particular way, and it was difficult to cross-check this perception, there was some doubt as to what had really happened. In such cases, the doubt is expressed in the report.

Unreliability of respondents' memories was mainly a problem when trying to pin down details of the early development of the program. The researcher naturally sought to check the dates of key events in some of the literature about the program and was rather surprised to find reference in some of these papers to "the mid seventies" rather than a specific year.

4. Transferability. This issue is discussed fully in Chapter 3. Briefly, attempts to draw inferences from the Montview experience should be done with extreme caution. Before attempting to do so, the similarities and differences between Montview and the situation to which it is desired to transfer the Montview findings should be carefully examined.

5. Literature Survey. Unlike most dissertations, this one does not concentrate on one discrete area. To properly survey the literature on each of the issues which surfaced during the investigation would be a lifetime task. Therefore, the literature search was concentrated mainly on very recent sources.

6. Respondent dissimulation. In this type of study some degree of re-interpretation of incidents or motives was to be expected. Careful probing and detailed cross-checking wherever possible were used to reduce this source of error to a minimum.

Delimitations

1. The Practicum definition (q.v.). School experience attached to elective subjects was excluded. Although EdGen126 was related to the first year school experience, it was not explored in detail. Fall subject area classes studied by all students were included in the Practicum, but winter 228 elective classes were not.

2. Past students at Montview. These were not approached for interviews, although some cooperating teachers had received their initial training at Montview University and spoke of their experiences.

3. Children in schools. Though a potentially very interesting source of interview data about the distal effects of the new program at Montview University, this source was not used.

4. Related to number 3 above, no attempt was made to link what occurs in the Practicum with school pupil learning.

Organization of the Thesis

This chapter has presented an introduction to the study and some remarks about its background, purpose, nature and potential significance. The terms used have been defined and limitations and delimitations stated.

Chapter 2 provides a basically non-interpretative outline of the structure of the Montview University Elementary Practicum and its constituent elements.

Chapter 3 sets out the methodology used in the study. Responsive evaluation is discussed and placed in a naturalistic research context. Issues of reliability, validity and objectivity are addressed.

In Chapter 4, the issue of theory-practice integration is examined. It is a very complex issue; much has been written about it, but little closure is apparent. An attempt is made to portray the range of opinions and beliefs held by people involved with the program, and to relate some of the opinions and beliefs to the literature concerning this issue.

Chapter 5 surveys the role of the faculty in the Practicum. It includes a discussion of their workloads, their roles as innovators, their perceived success as advisors in the student teaching context and the importance of the relationships into which they enter, both as individuals and as a group interacting with other groups which also have an interest in the Practicum.

Chapter 6 examines the roles of students and cooperating teachers in the Practicum. Student issues include their selection for teacher training, their roles as change agents in schools, and the concept of stages in the professional development of students during school experience. Cooperating teacher issues include their recruitment, training and quality, their possible roles as socializing agents for students, and their relationships with students during school experience.

In Chapter 7, a brief summary of the dissertation is presented. Some tentative hypotheses are advanced concerning the significance of the Montview experience for other teacher education institutions. Then follows a section containing reflections on the methodology used and some suggestions for further research. The chapter concludes with some personal comments about the Montview Practicum.

Chapter 2

2

THE ELEMENTARY PRACTICUM

This chapter focuses on the elementary teacher preparation program within the Faculty of Education at Montview University. Specifically, it places the student teaching practicum into the context of the four year program. As explained in Chapter 1, the practicum is taken to include all student observation and teaching experience in schools, as well as some on-campus course work in Year Two of the program.

The Education Degree at Montview

Montview University has about 9,000 students, slightly more than half of whom are studying full-time. With an enrolment of about 930, Education is the third largest faculty, behind Arts (1,500) and Science (970). All but two of the ten faculties or programs had increased enrolments between the 1981 and 1982 academic years. The Faculty of Education enrolment rose about 12% compared with a total university growth of 15.5%.

For Education students beginning programs before Fall, 1982, it was possible to receive provincial certification as a teacher after a minimum of three years approved study, and before completing the four year degree. Students who enrolled in Fall, 1982, and those who enrol in succeeding years, must complete a four year education degree in order to receive certification. This change will not alter Fourth

Year enrolment patterns significantly, because for the last few years most students have chosen to complete degrees before seeking teaching positions. Many of the minority who did leave after three years, planned to complete the fourth year for a degree by summer school study.

Table 1 shows the structure of the four year degree and indicates where experience in schools fits into the program.

First Year School Experience—'Involvement'

Students in the First Year of the elementary program spend seven half days in schools. This form of school experience was formerly labelled 'observation,' but was changed to 'involvement' to broaden the possible scope of the experience. Thus, students who feel confident enough to undertake brief teaching assignments, and whose cooperating teachers are willing to permit this activity, are encouraged by faculty advisors to attempt it. No expectation of content mastery is assumed. Nor is any sophistication of teaching skills expected. No formal pass-fail assessment is carried out, but students are rated on various criteria, on a five point scale.

EdGen126

EdGen126, a four credit hour course, is the only one of eight courses studied in first year to have a direct, deliberate link with school practice. The students are invited to consider the nature of education and teaching by discussing such topics as The School in Society, The Role of the Teacher, Characteristics of Effective Teachers, Introduction to Child Development and Learning Theory, Teaching Styles

Table 1

School Experience in the Montview University Elementary Education Program

Year	Type of Experience	
	Fall Term (Sept.-Dec.)	Winter Term (Jan.-Apr.)
1	7 half days spent in a school	One course (EdGen126) is directly related to school experience. It may be taken in Fall or Winter.
2	All course work is taken in the Education Faculty. OCTOBER Every Wednesday spent in a school	APRIL 2 weeks in schools
	This is known as the Professional Year or Pre-Internship Year.	
3	Most elementary students spend 16 weeks in schools as interns.	A few elementary students complete their internship in winter term.
4	No school experience. Some individual courses may include some school experience.	

Table 2

Teaching Skills Studied in EdGen226, 1982/83

Week Beginning	Teaching Skill	Week Beginning	Teaching Skill
Sept. 6	Lesson Planning	Jan. 17	Unit Planning
13	Planning Objectives and Evaluation	24	Classroom Management No. 3
20	Providing Set and Closure	Feb. 7	Classroom Management No. 4
27	Varying Presentation	21	Classroom Management No. 5
Oct. 11	Explaining and Demonstrating	28	Facilitating Retention and Transfer
18	Classroom Management No. 1	Mar. 7	Concept Teaching
25	Classroom Management No. 2	14	Developing Thinking Processes No. 1
Nov. 1	Questioning	21	Developing Thinking Processes No. 2
15	Discussing	25	Unit Teaching
22	Motivating	April 4	Review of Student Achievement
29	Observing and Record Keeping	11	Commencement of a two-week block in the schools
Dec. 6	Review of Student Progress		

and Lesson Planning, and School Organization and Administration (EdGen126 '82F Semester; Orientation Package, 1982).

The course instructors act as advisors for the students in the classes, which are known as sections. Thus, help is available to students with concerns about their school experience, their career choice, selection of courses for future studies and other matters. In Fall, 1982, there were about twenty five students in each of the six sections of the Involvement year.

Second Year—'The Pre-Internship Year'

Unlike the first year program, a deliberate attempt has been made to integrate all the work done on-campus with the experiences students have in schools.

The EdGen226 Cycle

Central to this attempt is the EdGen226 three credit hour course. The EdGen226 class is designed:

> 1. to introduce and focus intently on the most basic, universally used teaching skills.
> 2. to encourage pre-interns to practice these teaching skills within the context of lessons in various subjects in the schools. (Pre-Internship Cooperating Teachers' Manual, undated: iv)

This course involves four different on-campus activities each week, linked with the full day spent in schools every week after October.

Each week, the sections focus on a teaching skill as indicated in Table 2 below. On Thursday, the skill is introduced in a seminar setting. The students and instructor discuss the skill, the instructor may model it, and selected students prepare to teach it in a micro-teaching setting the following Monday.

The micro-teaching is performed in small groups of six to eight students (see Plate 1). Thus, in each section of about twenty five students, there will be three students acting as teachers each week. The other twenty two students break into three groups to act as pupils. Before beginning to teach, the 'teacher' requests two students and the instructor to collect data on some aspect or aspects of the teaching. The remainder of the students act as the class for the lesson. After the lesson, a post-observation conference is held in which the 'teacher' is given the data collected during the lesson (see Plate 2), and has an opportunity to respond to it and ask questions of both the official data-gatherers and the 'class.' The 'teacher' is then expected to write up his or her experiences in a permanent log-book.

On Tuesdays, advisor-advisee meetings are held in which each student meets with his or her advisor. This may be on a one-to-one basis, or the advisor may see all advisees at once. As the number of pre-intern students per advisor rarely exceeds four, this meeting allows the advisors to offer individual assistance to all their assigned students every week. The focus of these meetings is the practice of that week's teaching skill in the lessons the students will teach the following day.

The next day, all students are expected to teach two lessons in classrooms in and near Montview. (In 1982-83, a shortage of cooperating teachers in Montview necessitated the use of schools at a town some 75 kilometers from Montview. Students were taken there by bus.) In

COLOURED PICTURES
Images en couleur

Plate 1
Student 'Roger Brown' Micro-teaching

Plate 2
'Roger Brown' Receives Feedback on His Lesson

the two lessons, students are expected to practise the skill on which they have focussed on the preceding Thursday and Monday (see Plate 3).

On-campus class time on the following Friday is set aside for discussion of student experiences in schools two days earlier. This Friday session is discontinued after Christmas.

Thus, a cycle of EdGen226 lasts eight days. The final session of the cycle is held on Friday, the day after the first session of the next cycle. The reason for this arrangement was to avoid introducing a new skill on the last day of the week.

The overlapping nature of the cycles is represented in Table 3 below.

Table 3

The EdGen226 Cycle for Four Weeks

Week	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
1	-		-	Intro. Skill A	-
2	Micro-teaching Skill A	Meeting re Skill A	Teach A	Intro. Skill B	Post discussion Skill A
3	Micro-teaching Skill B	Meeting re Skill B	Teach B	Intro. Skill C	Post discussion Skill B
4	Micro-teaching Skill C	Meeting re Skill C	Teach C	Intro. Skill D	Post discussion Skill C

COLOURED PICTURES
Images en couleur

Plate 3

'Roger Brown' Teaches a Real Class on Wednesday

Other Features of EdGen226

Modules. These are brief, concentrated presentations on topics thought to be of interest and utility to Professional Year students. They have included

a. visits to special education facilities
b. a unit on the use of newspapers in schools
c. a unit on sex stereotyping
d. a unit on racial stereotyping
e. a unit on group processes.

Research performed by an internal evaluator (II, 1979) has shown that students perceive the first two modules as much more helpful than the last three.

O.C.R.E. (Off-Campus Residential Experience). An O.C.R.E. is held in early October each year (Fall O.C.R.E.) and another in early February (Winter O.C.R.E.). It is difficult to express in words exactly what O.C.R.E. means to the program. Certainly, it is an expression of the humanistic philosophical stance referred to in Learning to Teach—A Shared Responsibility (1981:4), a manual for use in the Internship year. The general expectations set out in O.C.R.E. Student Resource Manual 1 (undated:1) provide further clues to the significance of O.C.R.E. They state that it provides opportunities for students to

> . . . build group cohesiveness and positive group morale, . . . to learn and practise group processes and . . . to develop professional attitudes which are prize objectives of the teacher training program, i.e. leadership, concern for pupils, responsibility in the use of the environment, creativity in the use of resources, responsibility for/to colleagues.

It is also expected to allow faculty supervisors to begin to get to know students before the Fall student teaching begins (ibid.:1).

O.C.R.E. sessions last three days and are held in a beautiful setting (see Plate 4) about one hour's drive from Montview. Each section of about twenty five students is based at a location out of sight and hearing range of other sections and the main buildings. Two bell-tents are provided per section and some students elect to sleep in these rather than inside in the main buildings. Some activities, like the Campfire on the first night (see Plate 5), involve all students; others centre on the section as a unit. Plate 6 shows some members of a section reporting to the rest of the section on one of the assigned activities. Although there is a fixed timetable of activities and two leaders are assigned to each section, little formal leadership is provided. The sections are expected to "develop their own internal working relations as a task-oriented group" (O.C.R.E., Student Resource Manual 1, undated:1).

A recurring theme is interpersonal relationships and mutual trust. While students tend to be vastly amused at the antics of their fellows in a game designed to simulate problems faced by the multi-handicapped (see Plate 7), the mood is much more sombre when all of them are blindfolded and asked to place their trust in a single, sighted leader (see Plate 8).

The overall responsibility for the 1982-83 O.C.R.E.s was in the hands of a faculty member from the Health and Physical Education area. His previous experience as a professional entertainer probably contributed to the smooth running of the massed activities. An

COLOURED PICTURES
Images en couleur

Plate 4
Site of the Off-Campus Residential Experience (O.C.R.E.)

Plate 5
First Night at O.C.R.E.

COLOURED PICTURES
Images en couleur

Plate 6

Students Report to Their Section

COLOURED PICTURES
Images en couleur

Plate 7

It's Easy Looking On

BUT

Plate 8

It's Different When You Have to Do It Yourself annotated timetable of activities is provided in Table 4, but it is certain that in the case of O.C.R.E., the whole is greater than the sum of the parts.

Two week block in field. This extended block of school experience is undertaken in early April. During the two weeks, the student is expected to teach one or more units of work, to practise skills which were imperfectly mastered earlier, and to attempt to integrate as many of the skills as possible in single lessons.

Other Courses in Second Year

As stated earlier, the Second Year is so structured as to permit the integration of *all* courses with the school experience. Thus, the instructors of classes in Art, Health and Physical Education, Language, Math, Music, Reading, Science, Social Studies and Psychology are expected to be aware of the EdGen226 foci and to prepare their presentations to address both subject area content and the teaching skill for the week.

Evaluation of School Practice—Second Year

Each student has his or her teaching evaluated at least twice during the Pre-Internship year, once at Christmas and again at the conclusion of the school experience in April. Students receive ratings on a large number of criteria on a newly developed rating form and in the final April assessment, cooperating teachers are asked to judge whether or not the student is ready to proceed to Internship.

Table 4

Part of Fall O.C.R.E. Activities Timetable

Wednesday	9.00 a.m.	General orientation
	9.30	Collect camping equipment, travel to site, begin site development (set up tents, prepare fireplace)
	12.00	Lunch
	1.30 p.m.	Projects (4 to be completed) at camp site
	3.30	Canoeing lessons and practice
	5.30	Supper
	8.00	Campfire—each section to provide an item expressing its identity
	10.30	Film and refreshments
Thursday	9.00 a.m.	Orienteering
	12.00	Lunch
	1.30 p.m.	Projects at camp site
	3.30	Group effectiveness (sensitivity) See Plates 7 and 8
	5.30	Supper
	8.00	Concert provided by sections
	10.00	Dance and refreshments
Friday	9.00 a.m.	Science and environment exercise and site clean-up
	12.00	Lunch
	1.30 p.m.	Pack and clean-up
	3.30	Leave for Montview

Third Year—The Internship Year

Those students who are judged ready to proceed usually enter schools in the Fall semester, and remain there full-time until the Christmas break. The intention of the Internship is to provide a "nearly real experience for the prospective teacher" (Learning to Teach—A Shared Responsibility, 1981:3).

The Internship is a very thoroughly planned and structured experience. Detailed instructions designed to enhance the student's growth as a person and as a skilled user of teaching strategies are given to student, cooperating teacher and faculty advisor in the form of a one hundred page book (Learning to Teach—A Shared Responsibility, 1981). In order to facilitate the training of students and cooperating teachers in both interpersonal and supervision skills, Special Internship Seminars are offered before the Internship begins and in its first few weeks. Student and cooperating teacher pairs attend the Seminar which best suits their own commitments.

Special Internship Seminars

The Seminars are held at the same site as the Off-Campus Residential Experience. The formal timetable runs four days, from Monday evening until Friday afternoon at 3.30 p.m., and sessions are scheduled every morning, afternoon and night. The only 'light relief' is on Thursday evening, when a dance is organized in a nearby town.

Leaders come from Schools, the University, the Teachers' Federation, Trustees' Association and sometimes from outside the province. Attempts are made to pair inexperienced leaders with leaders who have filled the role at least once before. Leadership training begins at 7.00 p.m. on Sunday evening and continues all day Monday until the opening meeting of the Seminar.

The three major themes of the Seminar are interpersonal relationships, clinical supervision and intern growth and development (XVII, 1979:30). A major activity designed "to initiate communication of deeper concerns about individual responsibilities" (VII, 1982:48) takes place on the first morning. It consists of intern and cooperating teacher pairs spending 2½ hours together working through a twelve page document aimed at facilitating the expression of concerns, expectations and personal feelings. Plate 9 illustrates one such pair part way through this exercise.

Group work on self-disclosure and the giving and receiving of feedback is also undertaken. Plate 10 illustrates a leader engaging in 'thumb-wrestling' as a springboard to a discussion of the potential for misinterpreting others' feelings. This particular example was particularly striking, as one of the pair completely misread the other's feelings during the exercise.

After this concentrated period spent in practising interpersonal skills, clinical supervision skills are reviewed on the morning of the second day (Wednesday), and practised in the afternoon. This is done by each student presenting a lesson using the members of the group as pupils. Plate 11 shows the practical segment of a lesson on juggling. The pre-conferences and post-conferences are audited by other group members (see Plate 12), who provide feedback

COLOURED PICTURES
Images en couleur

Plate 9

Intern and Cooperating Teacher at Special Internship Seminar

Plate 10

Prelude to Exercise in Communicating Feelings

Plate 11

Micro-teaching on Juggling Skills

Plate 12

Pre-conferences Prior to Micro-teaching

on the use of communication skills in the conferences. More detailed work on clinical supervision is done on the third day. The final day is devoted to exercises and discussion on conflict resolution, and preparation for the return to schools. Participants are invited to consider the possible difficulties of using their new skills in the school environment, and how these difficulties might be overcome. Finally, structured evaluation of the Seminar is completed. After teachers and interns leave, a final leaders' meeting is held to identify concerns and potential avenues of improvement for future Seminars. The Seminar was first introduced in 1972 and has been evolving ever since (X, 1980:3; Minutes of Joint Committee on Field Experience, May 3, October 27, 1972). Its significance for both personal and skill development will be explored in later chapters.

Evaluation of School Practice—Third Year

The cooperating teacher completes a 'Placement Profile' on the intern at the conclusion of the Internship. This is done in consultation with the faculty advisor (Learning to Teach—A Shared Responsibility, 1981:35). An overall grade of Pass, Fail or Incomplete is assigned. The latter two grades may be assigned by either faculty advisor or cooperating teacher (ibid.:36). Rating scales are also completed on a number of personal and professional qualities, teaching competence and classroom management. It is the responsibility of the faculty advisor to inform the intern and cooperating teacher that the report is used mainly for employment references (ibid.:35). Several levels of appeal are available to an aggrieved student.

Fourth Year

No school experience is planned after the end of the Internship. For most elementary students, this means that the last three semesters of the degree program involve no exposure to classroom experiences. The reason for this long period of exposure to theory without opportunity for practice may be largely historical. As explained earlier, this year's First Year intake (Fall, 1982) is the first to be required to take the full, four year degree program for teacher certification. Until now, three years study was sufficient for certification. Therefore, school experience had to be fitted into three years to cater for those students who chose to leave in minimum time. This constraint no longer applies, and already exploratory moves have been made to provide further opportunity for integration of theory and practice in Fourth Year (IX, 1981; XIX, 1980).

Further Faculty Involvement with the Practicum

Supervision of Student Teaching

Every student is assigned a faculty advisor who visits the school to observe the student teaching. For First Year students, the advisor sometimes does not see the student teaching, but will discuss the student's observations and thoughts about teaching as a career.

The prescribed mode of lesson supervision is a form of clinical supervision, involving a pre-lesson conference, observation of the lesson and a post-lesson conference. It is expected that faculty advisors and cooperating teachers will become familiar with and use this mode of supervision.

Faculty advisors may be academic staff, sessional staff or graduate students. Not all academic staff act as faculty advisors. The typical advisor will have between four and ten advisees at one or more of the three year levels. The expectation is that each student will receive a visit from the advisor every two to three weeks. In practice, this varies enormously, students at risk often being seen much more frequently. Such students, and students in remote locations (e.g., La Maison Rouge, 400 miles north of Montview) are often visited by more than one faculty member.

Faculty Advisor Workshops

These are run for those faculty advisors who wish to, and are able to, attend. In Fall, 1982, sessions were offered in mid-October and mid-November. The October session outlined eight tasks required of advisors, covered some paperwork issues, and then the group divided according to major interest in intern or pre-intern supervision to analyze sample lessons and practise clinical supervision very briefly.

The November supervision seminar had as stated purpose:

> . . . to acquaint new faculty, graduate students and sessionals with various aspects of supervision and to review with experienced faculty members the roles, responsibilities and expectations of field advisors. (Memorandum to Pre-Intern and Intern Supervisors, November 2, 1982)

Six days later, a memorandum on Guidelines for Supervision was distributed. This contained a paper on clinical supervision, one on setting targets and measuring performance and one on feedback.

Cooperating Teacher Workshops

These are held for cooperating teachers of interns and pre-interns on separate evenings. Typically, they involve opening remarks by the coordinator of professional development and a presentation by the program manager. Following questions and discussion, the cooperating teachers are taken to supper by the faculty members present. The very short time allowed (4.30-6.30 p.m.) and the large amount of administrative material to be covered, effectively prevents new cooperating teachers from fully mastering the principles and practice of clinical supervision. However, one of the eight tasks of faculty advisors outlined at their October meeting was to model clinical supervision for cooperating teachers. In ideal conditions, this mechanism should work as intended. Some comments on the degree of success actually experienced appear in a later chapter dealing with cooperating teachers.

Internal Research on the Practicum

Several members of the faculty have been involved with research into the Practicum in which they explored various aspects of the school experience offered at the School of Education, Montview University. To preserve the anonymity of the research site, roman numerals are used in referencing the work, which is listed as Group B in the Bibliography. The research was largely survey-type in which various interested parties were invited to comment on aspects of the school experience at Montview University. Another group of papers set out to explain what occurs in the Montview Practicum in terms of several theoretical frameworks. The Montview research is referred to in the context of the issue or issues to which it is relevant.

Summary

The Montview Elementary Practicum includes most of the program elements usually found in such programs worldwide, with few, if any, unique features. It is in the relative emphases given to the components that any distinctiveness claimed for the program must lie. A detailed analysis of those issues seen as important by program personnel will portray the Montview program and reveal its distinctive features.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

> . . . only the innovative are called upon to demonstrate their effectiveness.

Thus did Stake (1976:2) introduce a critique of existing evaluation practices and a discussion of what he saw as some viable alternatives. It appears to be standard practice for writers in the field of qualitative approaches to educational research to include a discussion of the relative merits of qualitative and quantitative methods (Zeichner, 1978; Stake, 1972, 1975, 1976d; Parlett and Hamilton, 1972; Glaser and Strauss, 1967). They aim to demonstrate the superiority of the qualitative approach and usually take one of two approaches. They may attempt to demonstrate the inadequacies of quantitative research, or they may argue the superiority of the qualitative approach. More recently, there appears to be a trend to seek a rapprochement between the factions, and to argue that there may be a place for both approaches (Reichardt and Cook, 1979; Trend, 1979; Ianni and Orr, 1979; Kalman, 1976; Light and Pillemer, 1982).

Plan of the Chapter

In this chapter, some examples of the three approaches mentioned above will be examined. This will be followed by a section in which notice is taken of warnings expressed by several researchers concerning the uncritical application of qualitative methods. Then, under the heading 'Choice of a Method,' Stake's Responsive Evaluation (1972, 1975) will be considered in some detail.

Matters pertaining to the researcher's entry to the research site, data collection and treatment will then be examined, and finally, considerations of the authenticity of the data and interpretations will be dealt with.

Problems with Quantitative Educational Research

Limited Usefulness to Practitioners

In a paper presented to the Association of Teacher Educators arguing for more qualitative educational research, Zeichner (1978) stated that the psychometric approach has severely limited the questions asked by researchers. Glaser and Strauss (1967) made a similar point when they referred to the binding effect of commitment to a preconceived theory in quantitative research. Stake (1976d) railed at evaluators who had little or no understanding of the content or issues of the programs they evaluated. In another paper, Stake (1976e) claimed that educators often saw little or no relevance to their programs in evaluation studies which placed stress on objectivity and systematization. He warned researchers against performing peer-admired studies of no use to the client.

An Epistemological Note

In an article dealing with different possible epistemologies in Educational Administration research, Culbertson (1982) pointed out that logical positivism was inherently inappropriate for dealing with questions involving subjective values. Parlett and Hamilton (1972) argued that it was incorrect to believe that there were _any_ forms of research free of concerns about subjectivity.

Logical positivists who work in the area of organizational operations clearly believe in the existence of laws governing such operations, and in the feasibility of performing research to elucidate these laws. Diametrically opposed to this position was that taken by Greenfield (1982), who claimed that in the domain of organizational operations, there are no laws. While not taking such an extreme position, Zeichner (1978) stated that some insights are inaccessible by conventional means and that ". . . reality cannot be broken down into component parts without a resultant misrepresentation of that reality."

Related to the position taken by Zeichner (ibid.) is that of Parlett and Hamilton (1972:22), who warned evaluators against "spurious technological simplification of reality." Stake (1972a:3) wrote of evaluators whose role should be to keep people "in touch with the reality of instruction" but whose "scrapbooks are full of enlargements of enlargements" (ibid.:3). Levine (1973) argued that even very well designed experiments make assumptions about the social world which are not always tenable. The example he gave of such an assumption is that of experimenter honesty. The infamous case of Sir Cyril Burt's I.Q. research provided a gross example of the violation of that assumption. Educational policy with far-reaching ramifications and personal significance for millions of British school children was predicated on

Burt's research results.

Changes during Evaluations

A problem faced by evaluators is to know what to do about programs which change during the life of the evaluation. Zeichner (1978) observed that qualitative methods allowed evaluators to note changes in a program during evaluation, while Stake (1975b:27) stated that "the pre-ordinate approach is not usually sensitive to ongoing changes in program purpose." Preordinate evaluators have essentially two ways to handle change during an evaluation, neither of which appears to be satisfactory. They may ignore the change, and hope it does not interact with their measured variables, or they may attempt to suppress the change, and risk incurring the righteous wrath of program personnel who wished to make the change. Footnotes 17 and 18 in Parlett and Hamilton (1972:8,9) provided disturbing examples of both methods.

Summary: The Case against the Quantitative Paradigm in Behavioral Science

Summarizing the case against the uncritical use of quantitative methodologies in educational research, Parlett and Hamilton (1972:8,9) noted the following shortcomings.

1. The number of relevant parameters in educational situations is so large that it requires either unrealistically large samples or artificial control of variables.

2. Innovative programs usually involve changes during the term of an evaluation. Preordinate evaluation cannot accommodate to these changes.

3. Traditional evaluations necessarily impose artificial and unacceptable restriction on the scope of studies.

4. Statistical processes usually obscure important atypical data.

5. Participant value positions are usually ignored in quantitative evaluations.

Zeichner's list (1978:3-5) of the problems of the psychometric paradigm in behavioral science included artificiality, sterility, paucity of variance explained, and the excessive concentration on chosen variables to the exclusion of other possibly crucial variables.

The arguments advanced by the writers cited above appear compelling. The claims made for more naturalistic modes of research will be briefly surveyed in the next section.

Strengths of Qualitative Educational Research

Pillemer and Light are researchers who work firmly within a quantitative paradigm. Nevertheless, in a paper dealing with synthesizing quantitative studies (Pillemer and Light, 1980), they argued for the use of an approach which had a distinctly naturalistic flavor. This was to examine conflicting results from the quantitative studies "to alert us to search for background factors that can explain conflicts" (ibid.:190). They also advised would-be synthesizers to look for "outliers" or exceptional programs (ibid.:190).

Guba (1981:5) argued that the naturalistic paradigm is better for social/behavioral phenomena for three basic reasons:

1. There are multiple realities, existing chiefly in the minds of people.

2. It is impossible to maintain investigator neutrality when working with people.

3. Human behavior is rarely context-free.

Horowitz (1972) recounted an engaging tale to give prominence to one of the distinctive strengths of the qualitative paradigm, the importance accorded to extreme cases. The story dealt with twenty five carnation plants, twenty four of which throve and produced many excellent blooms, while the twenty fifth plant died. Nevertheless, the average number of blooms per plant was very satisfactory. Horowitz (ibid.) contrasted this situation with one where twenty four children in a class learned well, while one had serious learning difficulties. In the horticultural example, a quantitative paradigm was eminently appropriate. However, when working with people, methods needed to be used which took into account individuals at the extreme ends of distributions, in more sensitive ways than merely allowing them to affect the sizes of standard deviations.

The story of a breeding pair of bearded tits told by Scott and Eklund (1978) graphically illustrated both the need for very careful observation, and the importance of studying living organisms in environments which are as close to natural as possible.

In a monograph on naturalistic inquiry in educational evaluation, Guba (1978) stated that the need for naturalistic inquiry could be argued on the basis of eight purposes:

1. To provide more investigative strategies for emerging questions.

2. To assist with the study of process.

3. To provide a methodology when experimentation is impossible.

4. To investigate treatment-situation interactions more adequately.

5. To avoid implicit shaping of outcomes.

6. To optimize generalizability.

7. To meet practical criteria defined (by Glaser and Strauss, 1967:3-12) as fitting, working and communicating.

8. To redress the balance between what people do and what they say they do, specifically with respect to people who claim to use 'the scientific method.'

Stake (1976d:4) stated:

> The key hope, I think, is that subjective information based on key issues, oriented to real problems in particular situations, rigorously cross-examined, will become a standard offering of evaluation studies . . . It seems to me to be a matter of epistemology; how do we know our programs? What counts as evidence that a program is working?

This passage perhaps best expresses the fundamental emphasis in most of Stake's recent writing on evaluation research. "How do we know our programs?" (ibid.) is answered by Stake in other papers (see, for example, Stake, 1975a, 1975b, 1976b). In each of these, he answers that to communicate with program personnel about the program, some form of natural communication is almost always more effective, and certainly more relevant, than an array of numbers, no matter how detailed. To communicate with other audiences, either direct or vicarious experience with the program is desirable.

Rapprochement between Paradigms

During the past five years, there has been a tendency for researchers to see beyond single-paradigm polemics and to begin to recognize the possibility of combining quantitative and qualitative methods in research. Articles like "Beyond Qualitative Versus Quantitative Methods" (Reichardt and Cook, 1979), "On the Reconciliation of Qualitative and Quantitative Analyses: A Case Study" (Trend, 1979) and "Mixing Qualitative and Quantitative Methods: Triangulation in Action" (Jick, 1979) featured arguments that mixing methodologies is not merely acceptable, but may also strengthen research. Even primarily quantitative researchers like Light and Pillemer (1982) argued for capitalizing on the strengths of both methodologies.

These arguments are expanded later in the chapter, in the section dealing with authenticity concerns.

A Note on Fashion in Research

Rist (1980) noted a tendency for some researchers to adopt uncritically any new research methodology merely because it was new. Specifically, he criticized what he called "blitzkrieg ethnographers" who spent inadequate periods of time at a research site, but who still claimed to have produced "an ethnography." Ianni and Orr (1979) made the same point as Rist and also identified a number of other problems associated with qualitative research in educational settings. They asserted that there was a need for development of a range of qualitative methods to complement participant observation and warned would-be qualitative educational researchers to note and take account of the problems they had listed.

In a paper on possible approaches to educational evaluation, Codd (1981) cited Parsons' (1976:136) warning to researchers against the adoption of new approaches for ideological reasons. While one might argue that a researcher's ideology could be a totally valid influence on his selection of a research paradigm (see, for example, Bates (1982) on critical theory in Educational Administration), it seems nevertheless desirable to select a research paradigm on rather broader grounds that its consonance with the researcher's ideological stance.

The rest of this chapter describes the methodology used to execute a responsive evaluation of the Elementary Practicum at Montview University. While numerical data were utilized where available and appropriate, the major methodology used was naturalistic.

Choice of a Method: Responsive Evaluation

The researcher believes:

1. That to be worth doing, educational evaluations should be reported in modes accessible to all their audiences. As Stake (1978b:6) put it:

> And frequently that everyday-life perspective will be superior for discourse among scholars for they too often share among themselves more of ordinary experience than of special conceptualizations.

2. That to be maximally accessible, evaluation reports should include both verbatim statements and interpretation of group opinion from as wide a range of program participants and other interested parties as possible.

3. That where a wide divergence of opinion exists, this should be reflected in the report.

4. That in spite of the informality implied by 1. and 2. above, the question of the authenticity of data and interpretations must be addressed and strenuous efforts made to ensure that the report presents an authentic portrait of the evaluated program. Authenticity is the term adopted by Guba (1978) to avoid the quantitative connotations associated with the terms reliability, validity and objectivity. It is discussed in some detail later in the chapter.

It appeared to the researcher that Stake's responsive evaluation (1975b) met most of the requirements above as well as, or better than, any other approach.

In the words of Stake (1975b:14):

> An educational evaluation is responsive evaluation if it orients more directly to program activities than to program intents; responds to audience requirements for information; and if the different value-perspectives present are referred to in reporting the success or failure of the program.

Unlike preordinate evaluations which focus on objectives or hypotheses, responsive evaluations focus on issues. These are to be permitted to emerge throughout the evaluation (ibid.:17) and are conceptualized as matters of importance and crucial concern to people in, or concerned with, the program.

To clarify the essence of responsive evaluation, it may be expedient to examine what Stake and others have said about it, specifically focussing on exemplars and non-exemplars of responsive evaluators and evaluations. Responsive evaluators are not:

1. External deliverers of insights (Stake, 1975b:36).

2. Removers of mysteries about the program (ibid.:23). They should instead portray such mysteries.

3. Ordained to battle illogical value positions held by program personnel, although they may point out that others view things differently (ibid.:37).

4. Assessors of goal-attainment (Stake and Hoke, 1976:53).

5. Givers of answers. In fact, they may well not even know the questions (ibid.:53).

6. Useful for situations with clear, measurable criterion variables and the need for a specific decision, rather than understanding of the program (Stake, 1976a:20). In such situations, preordinate evaluation is more appropriate.

On the other hand, responsive evaluators are:

1. Facilitators helping program personnel discover ideas, answers and solutions in their own minds (Stake, 1975b:36).

2. Portrayers of concerns felt by program personnel (Stake and Hoke, 1976:53).

3. Contributors toward the enhancement of understanding or resolution of issues (Stake, 1975b:17).

4. Providers of opportunities for vicarious experience of programs (Stake, 1976b:351).

5. Mirrors of reality for those concerned with the programs (Hopkins, 1979:2).

6. Describers and portrayers of programs, whose work meets the standards of logic, science and ethics (Glass and Ellett, 1980:217).

7. Describers of what really happens in programs, rather than what the downtown office says happens (Miles, 1981:492) (see also, Lincoln and Guba, 1980:66).

8. Open to the inclusion and use of advocate and adversary reports and participant observers' perspectives (Stake and Gjerde, 1975).

Carrying out Responsive Evaluation

Stake has not laid out a fixed set of procedures which must be executed in order for a study to be a responsive evaluation. However, he provided a list of "prominent events" (Stake, 1975b:20), as a guide for evaluators. This list is reproduced in Figure 1. Although the events are arranged around the face of a clock, there is no compulsion to travel from one to another in clockwise order (ibid.:18).

As a guide to what sorts of data an evaluator may wish to collect, Stake suggested the use of his 1967 matrix, reproduced here as Figure 2.

As general advice about what to look for, Stake (1975:15) stated that the evaluator ". . . should not fail to discover the best and worst of program happenings." On reporting findings, he said (ibid.:23):

> The program staff . . . may be uncertain, and the audiences should feel that uncertainty. . . . More ambiguity, rather than less, may be needed in our reports.

Relevance Versus Rigor

This is a contentious area of Stake's writings, and the researcher believes that Stake may have overstated his beliefs in order

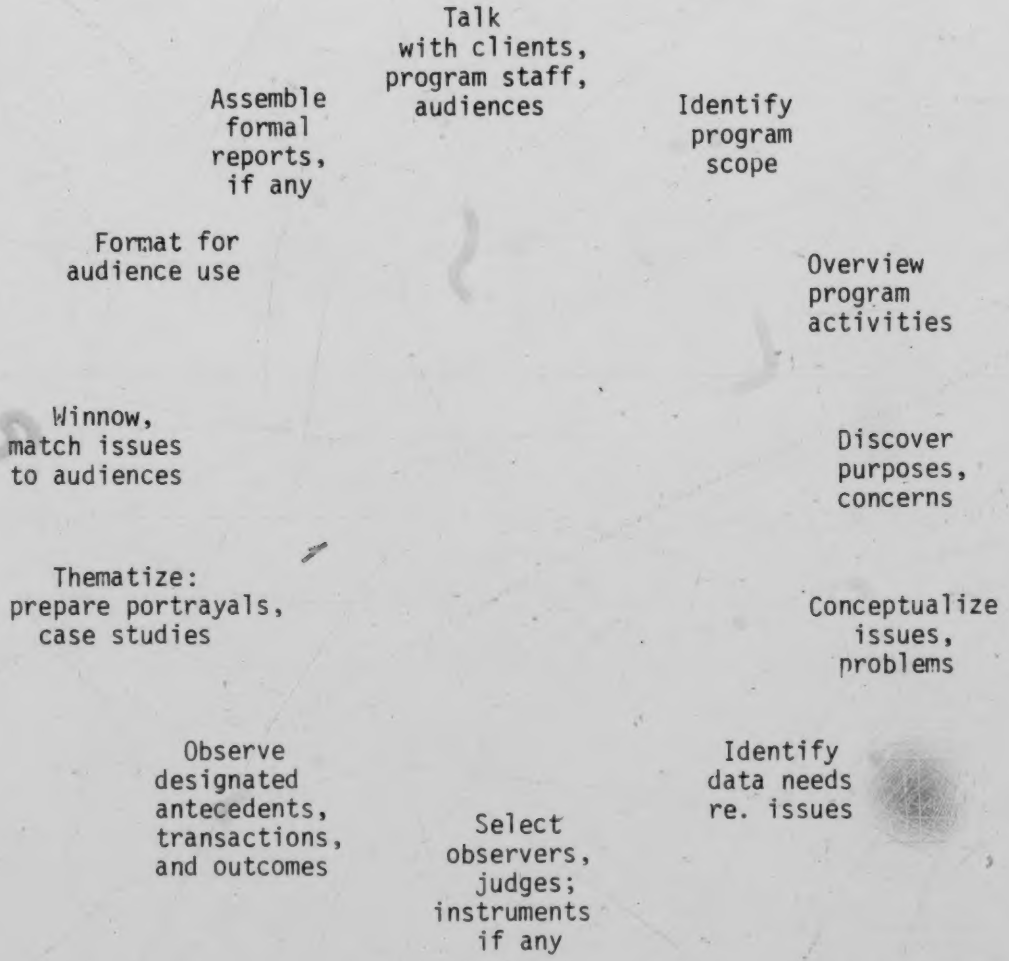
Talk with clients, program staff, audiences
Identify program scope
Overview program activities
Discover purposes, concerns
Conceptualize issues, problems
Identify data needs re. issues
Select observers, judges; instruments if any
Observe designated antecedents, transactions, and outcomes
Thematize: prepare portrayals, case studies
Winnow, match issues to audiences
Format for audience use
Assemble formal reports, if any

Figure 1

Prominent Events in a Responsive Evaluation
(Source: Stake, 1975b)

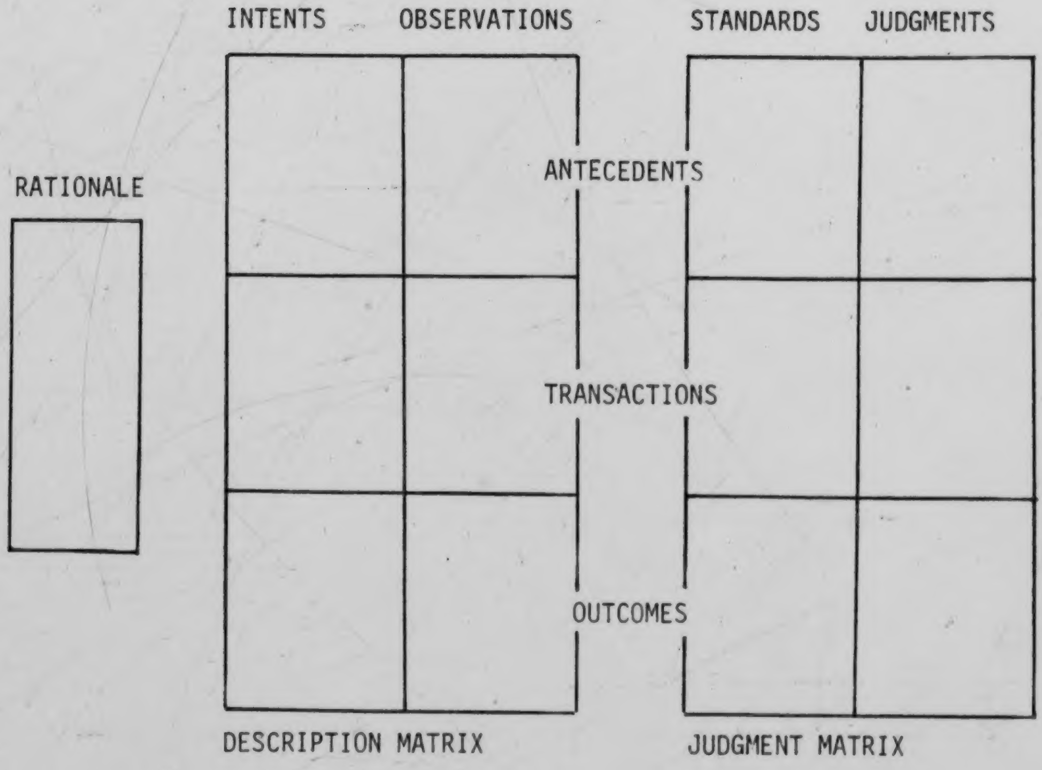

Figure 2

A Layout of Statements and Data to be Collected
by the Evaluator of an Educational Program
(Source: Stake, 1975b)

to make what he saw as an essential point. For example, the evaluator "sacrifices some precision in measurement, hopefully to increase the usefulness of the findings to persons in and around the program" (Stake, 1975a:10). On examining a few cases in depth, rather than the whole population superficially:

> The evaluator will find that case studies of several students may more interestingly and faithfully represent the educational program than a few measurements on all the students . . . The sampling error will often be a satisfactory price to pay for the improvement in communication. (Stake, 1975a:25)

On making school evaluations relevant "we face a choice between relevance and objective quantitative measurement" (Stake, 1976b:351).

These and other similar statements have led to criticism. For example, Rakel (1976:35) commented on a responsive evaluation which had been carried out on his Department of Family Practice at the University of Iowa:

> The responsive approach may be more relevant to identifying the concerns and attitudes of Family Practice residents and faculty, but it is less accurate as a measure of the effectiveness of established teaching methods.

More specific criticism was levelled by Gallagher (1976), a director of Educational Research and Services at the School of Medicine at Wayne State University, who quoted Stake's remarks about sacrificing some accuracy for relevance. He then argued that the ultimate relevance of data depends on its quality and questioned why Stake did not use quantitative aspects when they were relevant. In this, Gallagher showed a less than careful reading of Stake's work. Stake did recommend use of quantitative techniques where they are appropriate (see, for example, Stake, 1975b:16,17,22). Gallagher also claimed that even a responsive evaluator made decisions, but that these are less explicit, public and replicable. It is debatable whether Stake ever made decisions about programs he studied. His stated position (Stake, 1975b:36) was:

> he is making his greatest contribution, I think, when he is helping people discover ideas, answers, solutions, within their own minds . . . He promotes internal authority rather than external authority.

It is understandable that people whose entire training and experiences have been within the quantitative paradigm should feel at best uncomfortable with responsive evaluation reports. Stake (1975b:19) claimed that "There is seldom a greater legitimacy, however, than the endorsement of large numbers of audience-significant people." He went on to suggest that an evaluator "may need to discover what legitimacies his audiences . . . honor" (ibid.:29). He did not indicate what action (if any) was possible if members of the audience honored only quantitative work. In an attempt to provide an advance organizer for those faculty members whose academic training has been purely quantitative, a brief memorandum on responsive evaluation was prepared and distributed to all faculty. A copy is included as Appendix 1. Stake's own advice about legitimating responsive evaluations will be discussed in the authenticity section below.

Summary

Stake encapsulated responsive evaluation during an interview he gave with Larry Braskamp and Jack Morrison and from which the following is excerpted (Stake, 1975:36,37).

> I like the evaluator more in the role of civil servant than civil philosopher. When you hire an evaluator, you aren't hiring a person who has a great deal of wisdom about your problems . . . It is much more likely that whatever truths, whatever solutions

> there are, exist in the minds of the people running the program, those patrons of the program . . . I emphasize the facilitator role more than the deliverer of insights.

During a careful consideration of the above literature about responsive evaluation, the researcher gradually developed a conviction that it offered a desirable means of becoming intimately acquainted with the Montview Elementary Practicum. It seemed that responsive evaluation fitted the canons of feasibility (in terms of time, money and researcher competence), utility (for both the program personnel and the researcher) and consonance with researcher ideology. What remained was to negotiate entry to the research site and approval from program administration to proceed with the evaluation.

Entry to the Research Site

Initial contact in early June 1982 was by telephone to the Coordinator of Professional Development. This resulted in a letter dated June 21 inviting the researcher to act as a guest leader at the September 19-24 Internship Seminar (see Appendix 2). The invitation was accepted and the application form returned by the researcher, accompanied by a letter expressing interest in performing a responsive evaluation on the Practicum (see Appendix 3).

Memorandum of Agreement

Following the researcher's attendance at the Seminar, the Dean of Education was approached, with a request for approval of a proposal to conduct a responsive evaluation of the Elementary Practicum at Montview. The Dean was most accommodating and accepted a Memorandum of Agreement (see Appendix 4). This specified the nature of the research, identity of the researcher, presentation and distribution of a final report, access to data, resource implications for the evaluation and contained a major section dealing with principles of procedure. This section dealt with access to records generated by the researcher, veto powers over the report, disinterest of the researcher, access to faculty and students, representation and acceptance, and publication and anonymity. The Memorandum of Agreement, which was based on that used by Bates, Braithwaite, Jenkins and Taft (1981), addressed all eleven themes identified by Kemmis (1980) in a paper on case study methods in evaluation. A comment made by a faculty member to a class in the researcher's hearing suggested that some staff may have resented the Dean's acceptance of the Agreement without consultation with the whole faculty.

Consent Form

A consent form was designed for signature by interview respondents (see Appendix 5). It basically stated the purpose of the interview and the privileged nature of the conversation, and promised anonymity where possible. In cases where doubt existed about potentially damaging comments being traced to the respondent, the researcher promised to contact the respondent for final clearance on the basis of fairness, accuracy, relevance and anonymity before completing the report.

Anonymity of Research Site

The attempt to avoid revealing the true identity of Montview University proved difficult. Clearly, if there is a concern that any of the insights gained at Montview are transferable to other sites, then the more detailed the specification of Montview University characteristics are, the better the chance will be of assessing its degree of similarity to another university. Nevertheless, certain geographical and demographical features of Montview have been omitted or altered in an attempt to conceal its identity.

Data Collection

Seven main forms of data were collected. Four of these are traditionally collected in most qualitative research. They are data from observation, interviews, questionnaires and documents. Parlett and Hamilton (1972:15) listed these data areas for exploitation by illuminative evaluators. The other three data sources are less orthodox. They are the use of photographs, the collection of participant observers' perspectives and the use of a modified judicial evaluation of part of the Practicum.

Documents

Documents from the following groups were examined.

1. Minutes of the Joint Field Experience Committee.

2. Papers and journal articles written by faculty and graduate students about the Montview Practicum.

3. Guides for each year of the elementary program.

Questionnaires

1. A questionnaire designed by the Internship Seminar organizers (see Chapter 2) is given to each participant in the

Internship Seminars. A selection of these was scanned by the researcher.

2. A questionnaire is sent by the Faculty of Education to each of the interns and cooperating teachers at the conclusion of each Internship every year. The returns are summarized. Several summaries of previous years were scanned by the researcher. The questionnaires sent to interns undertaking Internship in Fall, 1982 (September to Christmas) were revised with the approval of the coordinator of professional development, to better suit the researcher's information needs.

3. An informal questionnaire listing issues identified by the researcher was given to twenty five members of the Montview faculty and the student association president, most of whom had previously been interviewed. They were asked to indicate whether they believed the importance of each issue was trivial, moderate or crucial.

Observation

1. Meetings. The researcher requested and received the formal approval of the Dean, expressed in a memo to faculty, to attend any committee and subject area meetings, subject to the approval of the groups. Twenty four meetings were attended.

2. Internship Seminar. There were positive and negative aspects associated with the fact that the Seminar was held during the first week after the researcher's arrival at Montview. While it provided an opportunity for an overview of an important element in the Practicum, there had been insufficient time to build a conceptual

framework into which to assimilate the events which occurred during the Internship. Detailed notes were kept to facilitate later analysis.

3. Off Campus Residential Experience (O.C.R.E.). A most enjoyable and instructive three days were spent observing the entire second year elementary student group plus many of the faculty, interacting in an outdoor setting. Special attention was given to one section of students to which the researcher was attached as an associate leader.

4. Classes. As explained in Chapter 2, the EdGen226 class runs on an eight-day cycle. All sessions of the cycle for one section of students were attended. At intervals after that, the researcher developed the habit (with the consent of the instructor) of 'dropping in' on classes of that section. The students very rapidly came to ignore these visits unless directly spoken to by the researcher.

5. School practice. On a number of occasions, it was possible to combine trips to schools for the purpose of interviewing cooperating teachers, with observation of students teaching classes.

Interviews

Interviews were conducted with over ninety respondents. They included twenty two faculty members, twenty two pre-interns (second year students), twelve cooperating teachers, and members of the following groups:

1. Department of Education officers
2. School principals

3. Superintendents and directors
4. Students from first, third and fourth year
5. School Trustees' Association
6. University administration
7. Education Students' Association executive
8. Post-graduate students
9. Native Teacher Training Program staff.

No attempt was made to sample randomly from the groups. Rather, a form of 'theoretical sampling' was practised (Glaser and Strauss, 1967:45), where the developing understanding of the Practicum and its important issues often suggested the type of informant who was needed to verify interpretations. Thus, after spending a large amount of time winning the confidence of members of a particular group of students, it was possible to use in-depth questioning of these students to develop understanding of certain emerging issues. However, to guard against the possibility that members of the group were exposed to atypical experiences, students from other groups were interviewed to provide an opportunity for the interpretations to be confirmed or questioned.

Elite interviews. The approach used in most interviews was Dexter's "elite interview" (1970:5). In elite interviews, the interviewer takes the position that the respondent's view of the situation should be respected and that the interviewer's role is mainly to provide certain broad, general questions and to record what is said. If necessary, leading questions may be used, particularly toward the end of an interview. In this research, the elite interview approach was used for most faculty interviews. The guiding questions were:

1. What is your role in the Elementary Practicum? (The Elementary Practicum was defined as in Chapter 1.)

2. What do you see to be the strengths of the Elementary Practicum?

3. Do you have any concerns about the Elementary Practicum?

4. If there were no resource constraints, how, if at all, would you alter the Elementary Practicum?

Most of the faculty interviews were audiotaped and later transcribed. The transcription was done by the researcher to avoid the possibility of a breach in anonymity which may have resulted from having the tapes commercially transcribed.

In the other interviews, vigorous attempts were made to achieve verbatim records. The success rate in this endeavor varied greatly. Material which respondents stated to be important to them was recorded verbatim, even if this meant that the researcher had to request that a statement be repeated. Similarly, material which confirmed or disconfirmed developing interpretations was recorded, as close to verbatim as possible. As much other material was recorded as was consonant with an attentive posture by the researcher. Only one of over ninety respondents requested that notetaking cease. In that case, reconstruction of important points was attempted immediately following the interview.

Participant Observers' Perspectives

In performing an evaluation of The Twin City Institute for Talented Youth, Stake and Gjerde (1975) included a one-page informal report about the program from one of the program participants.

In the present evaluation, although strenuous efforts were made to portray the Practicum as it was, every piece of interpretation presented passed through a filter—the researcher's mind. Even the verbatim quotes were selected to support the particular interpretation presented. As a partial counter to this potential source of bias, several program participants were asked to provide participant observers' perspectives. Apart from a copy of an example to use as a general model (see Appendix 6), little or no guidance was given to the participant, in an attempt to avoid influencing the tone of the subsequent report. The resulting documents are presented as Appendices 7, 8 and 9. It may be argued, of course, that the persons asked to assist in this way were themselves selected to support the interpretations made. In fact, the two main criteria for selection of a person were (a) the researcher's belief that the person was unusually articulate, and (b) the researcher's belief that the person was open-minded about the Practicum, and in a position to have experienced both positive and negative features of it.

Modified Judicial Evaluation

One aspect of the EdGen226 weekly cycle generated vigorous yet strongly polarized comments. This was the weekly use of student micro-teaching (see Chapter 4 for a selection of the comments). Chapter 2 describes how this fits into the program (q.v.). In order to illuminate the disagreement about the issue, two faculty members were asked to separately provide brief papers or audiotapes taking one side each of the question. It was to be understood that neither statement necessarily reflected the author's true beliefs about the issue. Stake and Gjerde (1975) used a similar approach in their evaluation of the Summer program for talented youth.

An interesting extension to the Stake and Gjerde approach was suggested by one of the faculty members and approved by the other. This was to approach a faculty member from another university for comment on the two papers. This was done, and appears in Chapter 4 in the Micro-Teaching section.

Use of Photography

Stake (1975b) emphasized description and portrayal in reporting, and also stressed the need for a variety of reporting techniques. Petersen, Brown and Sanstead (1979) suggested that using a camera could contribute in both of these dimensions. They studied the use of a camera in each of portrayal, goal free and judicial evaluations. "The portrayal evaluator found photography to be a highly useful reporting tool" (ibid.:14). Petersen et al. also noted increased audience interest in the evaluation as an apparent result of the use of photographs in the report. This is a decidedly non-trivial concern of people who produce evaluations. Katz, Raths, Mohanty, Jurachi and Irving (1981) suggested that evaluation reports should be made more readable. To this end, they suggested the inclusion of carefully selected anecdotes and quotations to enhance readability (ibid.). It is the contention of this researcher that the inclusion of selected photographs is likely to increase audience interest in the evaluation in a similar way.

However, the use of photographs in research reports is not without problems. In an article titled "Do Photographs Tell the Truth?", Becker (1979) reprinted the same photograph twice (ibid.: 108,109). It showed a man working with light industrial equipment at a workbench. In the print on page 108, the photograph was apparently taken in a very dirty, dark factory, while the print on page 109 showed a man working in a clean, well-lit factory. The latter print was probably produced by cutting out the outline of man, machine and bench and rephotographing it against a plain, white background, to give the spurious impression of light and space. On the other hand, closer inspection of the 'dirty, dingy' photograph revealed that it spent rather too long under the darkroom enlarger lamp and that much of the dirt and shadow was an artifact of the process just as much as the light and space were artifactual in the other photograph. Other, obvious potential for distortion lies in the possibility of cropping prints to eliminate parts which might contradict the researcher's interpretations, and the simplest of all obfuscatory techniques, selecting what to photograph.

A different kind of problem with photography was identified by Bogdan and Biklen (1982). This is the possibility of affecting the researcher's rapport with the subjects of the photographs.

Guba (1981) addressed both the above types of problems. He stated (ibid.:5) that there are multiple realities, existing chiefly in the minds of people, and, concerning the problem of rapport, that it is impossible to maintain investigator neutrality with people. Greenfield (1982:8) suggested that "artistic and other non-rational modes of representing reality" might be better than standard, statistical summaries for "conveying the meaning of social organizations" (ibid.:8).

In the Montview context, no claim is made that the photographs reproduced represent a unique reality. It is, however, claimed with some confidence that they do illustrate important aspects of the program. For example, Plates 7 and 8 veridically portray the amusement of the onlookers (Plate 7) and the subsequent concern of the same people compelled to act as subjects (Plate 8). Plate 4 shows a reason for the delight expressed by many participants at O.C.R.E.

The problem of the potential influence on rapport was handled in two ways. First, the researcher did not use his camera until some degree of rapport had been established (with the exception of Plate 9, which was photographed on the same day as the researcher met the subjects of the photograph, and Plate 5, taken at night by firelight without the subjects' awareness). Second, the researcher carried the camera with him frequently, and occasionally took apparently random photographs. After the first few occasions of photograph taking, most subjects began to ignore the camera and appeared to behave as if it were not there. Petersen et al. (1979:19) noted the same effect.

Data Treatment

The crucial task in data treatment during a responsive evaluation is the identification and illumination of issues (Stake, 1975b). In Stake's 'clock-diagram' these tasks are labelled "Discover purposes, concerns; Conceptualize issues, problems; Thematize: prepare portrayals, case studies; Format for audience use; Assemble formal reports, if any. Stake (ibid.) provided little detailed guidance for identifying issues. He wrote (ibid:16):

> After getting acquainted with a program, partly by talking with students, parents, taxpayers, program sponsors and program staff, the evaluator acknowledges certain issues, problems or potential problems.

This was similar to Parlett and Hamilton's "observe; inquire further; and then seek to explain" (1972:14). Therefore, for more guidance in the task of actually discovering issues associated with a program, it was necessary to look further.

Bogdan and Biklen (1982) provided a detailed plan for discovering what they labelled categories (ibid.:156). This was to be done by watching for regularities and patterns within the data, both during data collection and while data are being analyzed later. During the present research, more emphasis was placed on identification of issues *during* data collection, so that such issues could be further explored in subsequent interviews. However, some issues did not emerge until the mechanical sorting and coding operation was carried out after data collection. This operation involved reading through photocopied transcripts of every interview and placing segments into categories using a coding system in the margins. Where an interview segment would not fit into an existing category, it was either discarded if obviously idiosyncratic and not relevant to the Elementary Practicum, or tentatively placed into a new category. At least one new category surfaced at this stage.

The marked photocopies were then cut into segments and each segment placed into a file for later use as illustrative material in discussion of the issues.

Guba (1978:50) pointed out that "issues do not exist in nature but in the minds of people." He provided (ibid.:53) guidelines in the search for issues, suggesting as a first step that the researcher seek recurring regularities in the sources. He warned against lightly discarding idiosyncratic material, pointing out that a lone comment running counter to all others in a particular issue might be emanating from the only respondent competent to comment on that issue.

Guba's second step involved internal and external homogeneity checks. He stated that within categories, items should be highly related, and that between categories, little relationship should exist. Attention to this procedure in the current study several times caused the collapse of a number of small categories into one larger category. For example, micro-teaching, although a free-standing issue in itself, is also a sub-set of the larger theory-practice integration issue and is discussed as part of the larger issue.

Knowing when to stop seeking new issues was a problem. Guba (1978:57) referred to the peeling of the "onion of reality to different levels." It is likely that continued exploration in almost any situation would lead to deeper levels of understanding. However, closure must be achieved. In the present research, this was mandated by time constraints. However, as the planned withdrawal date drew closer, a considerable degree of redundancy of information received was noted, and a strong sense of regularity was felt (Guba, 1978:60).

After withdrawal from the site, a list of issues identified was sent to twenty five respondents, most of whom were faculty members.

The respondents were asked to name any important issues which had not been listed. In twenty three returns, a number of suggestions for extra issues was made. All, however, fell into one of the following groups:

1. Issues actually on the list, but either inadequately expressed by the researcher or inadequately read by the respondent.
2. Issues excluded by delimitation.
3. Issues which emerged during the coding which had not been completed when the list of issues was drawn up.

Before reporting on the interpretation of the data, it was necessary to address the question of authenticity. This is done in the following section.

Rigor Versus Relevance: Authenticity Issues

As stated earlier in the chapter, one of the foci of the psychometric/naturalistic debate is the relative importance accorded in each paradigm to rigor and relevance. Guba (1981) stated that the single most important quality of a rationalistic inquiry is rigor, and of a naturalistic inquiry, relevance. Wardrop (1969) argued that attempts to maintain adequate control in program evaluations often changed the program to the extent that right answers were obtained to wrong questions; that is, that rigor was obtained at the sacrifice of relevance.

Stake, although writing of the sacrifice of rigor for relevance (1975a:10,25; 1976b:351), was nevertheless concerned to maximize the reliability and validity of responsive evaluations. His advice in this area was not, however, very detailed.

> Of course, he checks the quality of his records. He gets program personnel to react to the accuracy of his portrayals. He gets authority figures to react to the importance of various findings. He gets audience members to react to the relevance of his findings. He does much of this informally—iterating and keeping a record of action and reaction. (Stake, 1975b:14)

The need for a more detailed set of guidelines was met by Guba (1978), who prepared a set of tentative approaches to the problems of reliability, validity and objectivity in naturalistic evaluation. He labelled this domain "Problems of Authenticity" (Guba, 1978:61).

A. Intrinsic Adequacy (Internal Validity)

The new term introduced by Guba (ibid.) to replace 'internal validity' is intrinsic adequacy. He defined it as relating to the "degrees of isomorphism that exist between the study data and the phenomena to which they relate" (ibid.:62). Strategies "for pursuing or assessing isomorphism" include:

1. Erecting safeguards against potentially invalidating factors. Such factors include distortions resulting from the researcher's presence at the research site and involvement with subjects, from bias on the part of field worker or subjects, and from the way data are collected. There is no doubt that the researcher's presence at Montview did introduce distortions, at least initially. With regard to involvement with subjects, Wolcott (1975:119), Everhart (1977:13) and Zeichner (1978:8) all insisted that the field worker must actively participate and become personally involved. However, constant awareness of potential problems, and attempts to maintain a

sensitive, receptive non-judgemental stance over a prolonged period, coupled with a degree of healthy skepticism about what the researcher heard, saw and read, probably reduced this set of distortions to an acceptable level in this study.

2. Establishing degree of structural corroboration. This includes the techniques of triangulation and cross-examination. Triangulation is based on the notion that if a number of imperfect methods of data collection all lead to the same conclusion, the particular shortcomings of each method may be discounted and the conclusion tentatively accepted. In this research, interpretations were made and tentative conclusions reached when several of the methods of observation, interviewing, document analysis and questionnaires pointed to the same conclusion. Where this between-methods triangulation was not possible or feasible, within-methods triangulation was used. For example, if a majority of students, faculty members and cooperating teachers were all agreed on the answer to a question, some confidence may be placed in the answer they gave. Cross-examination was also used, sometimes to a point perilously close to respondent irritation. In most cases, the subject could not be shaken from his statement of fact, or the inference he had drawn. However, in at least one important question, several subjects retracted an inference and accepted that an alternative interpretation existed.

3. Establishing adequacy through persistent observation. By staying at the research site for three months and observing continually, both formally and informally, over the last ten weeks of that period, the researcher was able to differentiate between typical

and atypical situations. This is, however, not to imply that atypical situations were ignored. Instead, they could be interpreted within the context of everyday life at Montview.

4. Establishing credibility of findings. Constant interaction with program personnel gave plentiful opportunities to check both data and (later in the period of residence at Montview) interpretations. In fact, some issues which appeared from a preliminary literature research to be important, were mentioned by very few or no respondents. When directly questioned, little or no interest was shown in the issues. They were therefore discarded from the list of issues to be more fully explored.

Perhaps as important as respondent credibility is researcher credibility. Stake and Hoke (1976:58) stated that "one of the best ways of validating qualitative data is being unable to tear down our own conclusions." This attempt was made with all major interpretations by subjecting each conclusion to attack from all acceptable data sources. Only those which survived appear in later chapters.

5. Establishing congruence with specially prepared referential adequacy materials. Eisner (1975, cited in Guba, 1978:66) suggested the use of videotape or movie film. Cost factors ruled out both of these. Confidentiality considerations preclude use of the audiotape and long-hand records of interviews for this purpose.

However, a set of specially prepared materials exists and may be found in Appendices 7, 8 and 9. These are participant observers' perspectives solicited from respondents who appeared to be articulate and openminded. They were not read by the researcher until all interpretation was complete and can therefore be used as a check on intrinsic adequacy as suggested by Guba (1978:66).

B. Extrinsic Adequacy (External Validity)

"For many evaluation purposes, the question of extrinsic adequacy is meaningless" (Guba, 1978:67). If generalization is not an issue in an evaluation study, extrinsic validity questions become merely academic. Guba (ibid.) identified three possible positions which might be taken on generalizability.

1. It is a chimera (vain or idle fancy).
2. It is important and efforts should be made to meet normal scientific criteria.
3. It is a fragile concept with ambiguous meaning and variable power.

The researcher has taken a fourth position on generalizability. This is that although generalizability is certainly a fragile concept, it should be held to be important. Full descriptions of programs and their environments might allow readers of reports to decide whether a given program is similar enough to their own to generalize from the results of the researched program to their own.

Stake (1969:40) argued that the people interested in the findings of the study should determine whether or not an evaluator strove for a high level of generalizability. In the present study, the main aim was to portray the Montview Practicum. At the same time, it is the researcher's belief that there are messages, both positive and negative, for other universities in the Montview experience. In an attempt, then, to enhance generalizability, the Montview Practicum and the interactions between people and organizations involved in it have been described as fully as possible, consistent with maintenance of anonymity for participants. Where the demands of full description and anonymity clashed, the latter demands were taken to be preeminent.

Wardrop (1969:41) made a practical point about generalizations, which supported the present decision to press for high generalizability. He noted that in all evaluations, people *will* make generalizations, whether or not these are justified. It is, therefore, the responsibility of the evaluator to maximize generalizability in his studies. Guba pointed out that generalizations decay (1978:69) over time and in a program as innovative as the Montview Practicum (four new variants of the basic program either beginning or planned to begin within twelve months), this warning is especially significant.

C. Replicability (Reliability)

Guba (1978) noted that studies having good intrinsic adequacy necessarily have good replicability, and that replicability is therefore often a non-issue.

The claim of high intrinsic adequacy is made for this study, for the reasons cited above. Of three possible methods of enhancing replicability cited by Guba, it was only possible to use one. This was the method Guba called Overlap Methods. It is the use together of several imperfect techniques in such a way that the weaknesses of one method are cancelled by the strengths of another. This approach of triangulation has been discussed as a contributor to validity, but it clearly:

> Bolster[s] the case for reliability. Comparable results from two or more different approaches strengthen the reliability claims of each of the individual approaches. (ibid.:71)

D. Neutrality (Objectivity)

Glass and Ellett (1980:221) in a discussion on the standards of science, claimed that the one most important thing to be said about objectivity is that "it does not exist, surely not in the form it is believed to exist by many scientists and bad philosophers." They noted and approved a suggestion by Kaplan that the term be replaced by 'intersubjectivity' in discourse about science.

Guba noted the apparently enormous problems with objectivity in qualitative work, but claimed (1978:75) that naturalistic inquiry methods should be able to produce data which is reliable, factual and confirmable; in other words, objective.

He identified five threats to objectivity. These were conscious and unconscious prejudice, incompetence, gullibility and corruptibility. To counter these threats, Guba suggested the use of triangulation, cross-checking of testimony and persistent observation. Each of these procedures was used in the present study.

Related to objectivity were two other concepts, openness and fairness (ibid.:76,77). To enhance openness, Guba warned against the use of experiential, psychological and conceptual analogies while interviewing. By temporarily ignoring the last warning (against conceptual analogies), the researcher seriously misinterpreted a comment made by a respondent during the study. It was only on a rereading of the interview transcript that the possibility of misinterpretation became evident and a subject check showed that the original interpretation was quite fallacious.

With regard to fairness, Guba (ibid.) espoused House's two principles of justice. These were equal rights to basic liberties, and any inequalities to favor the least advantaged. In this study, respondents were sought from all groups, from the group of students who had failed the Practicum, from graduate students, through to the Montview University president. Evidence or opinion from higher status personnel was not valued above that from lower status personnel unless there were reasons independent of their status for so doing. For example, a failed student is more likely to have useful information on the subject of the personal effects of failure than the university president.

Ethical Issues

Because this study was about people and their interactions, and because the researcher was privy to a great deal of sensitive material, some balance had to be struck between the public's 'right to know' and the right of program personnel to protection.

Unfortunately, official proclamations were of little help. Stufflebeam's Propriety Standards (Stufflebeam, 1980) merely juxtaposed C4 Public's Right to Know, with C5 Right of Human Subjects and gave no hint about how to balance C4 and C5. Hendrickson (1982:2) reported fifty five Evaluation Research Society Standards, of which No. 47 was significant in this context.

> 47. Disclosure should follow the legal and proprietary understandings agreed on in advance, with the evaluator serving

> as a proponent for the fullest, most open disclosure appropriate.

No guidance on what level of disclosure was appropriate was provided. In fact, it was later stated that "the Evaluation Research Society's intent is to let ambiguities in practice provide examples" (ibid.:7).

The solution adopted here was to provide as much detail as possible about the Practicum and the activities associated with it, without identifying personnel involved. In cases where identification was likely, and negative consequences might possibly have ensued for the respondent, his or her clearance was sought before the report was finalized.

Summary

The present study was a responsive evaluation of an elementary practicum. It used largely non-quantitative methodology in the belief that such an approach was superior to quantitative methodology for promoting understanding of the practicum and increasing the relevance of the report.

The hermeneutic circle (Gadamer, 1975:259, cited in Culbertson, 1981) perhaps most clearly expresses the approach taken. The researcher, in pursuit of understanding of the Practicum, circled back and forth between parts of the Practicum and the whole, seeking at all times "the harmony of all the details with the whole [which] is the criterion of correct understanding" (ibid.).

Authenticity issues including intrinsic and extrinsic adequacy, replicability and objectivity were addressed, and attention was paid to the sometimes antagonistic demands of the public's 'right to know' and the 'rights of human subjects.'

The following chapter is the first of three chapters in which issues seen as important by Montview University Education Faculty members are examined.

Chapter 4

THEORY-PRACTICE INTEGRATION

This is the first of three data and interpretation chapters. The foci are the issues identified as important to members of the Education Faculty at Montview. Chapter 4 addresses a number of issues in the area of theory-practice integration. Chapters 5 and 6 deal with issues more directly related to the people involved in the Practicum.

In this chapter, a selection of the recent literature in the area of theory-practice integration is surveyed. This is followed by a detailed analysis of the data related to five major issues in the area and attempts to interpret the situation at Montview pertaining to each issue.

The Literature

Theory-practice integration is an issue of major importance to people concerned with the Montview University Elementary Practicum. Faculty have written and given papers on the topic (XIV, 1981; IV, 1982; VIII, 1980; IX, 1981). Cooperating teachers made reference to it in commenting about their student teachers and the Montview University program. The students find themselves immersed in an environment where deliberate attempts are made to link what they learn in university classes with the experiences they have as student teachers in the schools.

Teacher educators have been concerned about this issue for many years. In 1931, Baugher wrote "Practice teaching is the best single type of professional training to integrate theory, subject matter and practice . . ." (p. 3), and stressed the need for close cooperation between college and the field in planning the practice teaching. Since then, the literature has been abundant, diffuse and inconclusive. A selection of recent contributions is discussed below, under the following headings:

Official Policies
Perceived Importance of Theory-Practice Integration
Concerns about Poor Theory-Practice Integration
Examples of Good Theory-Practice Integration
Techniques for Improving Theory-Practice Integration
A Broader View of Theory-Practice Integration.

Official Policies

Provincial Teachers' Federation Policy

> 11. TEACHER EDUCATION
>
> The Provincial Teachers' Federation believes that preparation for the profession of teaching requires the following . . .
>
> 11.3 A systematized approach to field experience which includes at least a semester of internship, classroom exposure during each year of the preparation program, and experiences in as many levels of the division system as possible. The rationale for the design and implementation of the field experience component should be based on the need to relate practice and theory. (Submission to the Task Force on Secondary Education, Montview University, 1978)

Social Science and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC)

A recommendation of the Canadian Society for the Study of Education (CSSE) reads as follows:

> No. 3 That in the absence of scholarly agreement about the best knowledge acquisition strategies for education, SSHRC assign equal priority to high quality research at all points on the theory/practice dimension without special emphasis on the theoretical dimension.

It is likely (Andrews, 1983) that the SSHRC will shortly adopt this recommendation as policy for use in making decisions concerning funding of research proposals.

Few of the authors encountered in the literature search referred to the theory-practice dimension in the 'either-or' sense used by the CSSE above. Two important exceptions (Gillis, 1980 and Wadd, 1982) are discussed in the section entitled 'A Broader View of Theory-Practice Integration' below.

Perceived Importance of Theory-Practice Integration

Four years ago, a survey of anglophone teaching institutions in Canada was conducted, under the direction of Marvin Wideen and Michael Fullan. Analysis of the data from eight institutions showed that faculty regarded the integration of theory and practice as one of the greatest challenges to be met in preparing pre-service teachers (Hopkins, 1981). In fact, 26% of the faculty and 48% of the students in the sample from the eight institutions saw this issue as a serious or very serious problem. The data generated in this survey were also presented for each individual institution. The percentages of Montview faculty and students who viewed theory-practice integration as a serious or very serious problem were very much lower than those of the whole group. In fact, they were almost exactly half of those for the whole sample (The Management of Change in Teacher Education, 1979:17).

In Montview, community and educational leaders were asked for their views about education, specifically secondary education (VIII, 1980). Respondents stressed that teachers must be competent in performance of skills, rather than just be able to talk about the skills. Specific reference was made to practical pedagogy, knowledge and skills, application and psychology. Clearly, these people placed a higher priority on practice than they perceived was being provided.

Montview University elementary teaching students enrol in a four-year program, the last three semesters of which, for most students, involve no school experience. The attitudes of cooperating teachers and students to this extended period without school practice were investigated (IX, 1981). An overwhelming percentage of each group (71% of teachers, 79% of students) stated that they believed some form of opportunity for theory-practice integration should be provided in this period (ibid.:5).

In the United States, Corrigan (1982) noted that graduates of teacher training institutions did not feel particularly competent. He claimed, in fact, that they were not competent and needed more than just learning about teaching. The solution, according to Corrigan, was the development of what he called "a strong 'theory in use' foundation in the study of the profession itself."

In the report of an evaluation of the extended practicum program at Alberta universities (Theory to Practice, 1981), the views of international experts were solicited. William Taylor, Director of the University of London Institute of Education, stated that the length of a practicum was not as important as the "quality of linkages between the students' experience in the classroom and the content and methodology of their professional courses" (ibid.:28).

A parallel between the training of doctors and teachers was drawn by Horowitz (1974). Acknowledging the high quality of the integration between student doctors' theory and practical work, he speculated that teacher education may have inadvertently created "two worlds, two solitudes" (ibid.:82).

It appears, then, that there is widespread belief in the need to integrate theory and practice as closely as possible in teacher education courses. To what extent is this successfully achieved in teacher training institutions? In the following section, evidence is offered that there are programs where theory and practice are, at best, imperfectly integrated.

Concerns about Poor Theory-Practice Integration

> The worlds of Colleges and Schools are miles apart, and never the twain shall meet. The colleges are all theory and no skill; the schools are all skills and no theory. Presumably, it is left to us to match the pieces, but it is like one of those kit sets where you are left with the wrong pieces . . .

So wrote a New Zealand teacher trainee summing up his experience of the complementarity between theory and practice (Campbell, quoted in IV, 1982:8).

Thirteen of a group of eighteen British student teachers interviewed by Gibson (1976) claimed that they had learned little from their college tutors of direct relevance to the classroom. Taylor (cited in Theory to Practice, 1981:26) identified the task of achieving coherence in 'cafeteria-style' programs as a major problem in British teacher education.

Both students and cooperating teachers, interviewed by Zimpher (1980) in the United States, believed that 'real world' experiences were more important than the didactic components of the students' programs. During school practice, much of what was taught in methods courses tended to be ignored or discounted. Similarly, cooperating teachers and their students at Deakin University (Australia) often referred scathingly to 'ivory tower academics' and stated that reality 'at the coal-face' had little to do with student course work (Dickie, 1972-81).

Ratsoy, Babcock and Caldwell (1978) evaluated the University of Alberta practicum and requested cooperating teachers and students to rate the various programs. The integrated Plan B elementary program received substantially higher ratings than the non-integrated program. In Lethbridge, Lowe (1982:43) claimed that "the major bone of contention is the seeming irrelevance of some required on-campus courses." Finally, it was stated about the old program at Montview University that "student teaching experiences were only marginally related to second year classes" (XVI, 1982:5).

Examples of Good Theory-Practice Integration

In this section, a number of attempts to promote the integration of theory and practice will be briefly described. A striking feature of these programs is the small number of students involved in each program. Only at NORTEP and at Montview University are whole year-groups of students involved.

At the University of British Columbia and at Deakin University, Australia, small, highly selected groups of students (nineteen in one program at UBC, ten at Deakin) actually undertake their university course work at elementary schools. They teach classes, and reflect on problems and issues raised in their teaching in small, intensive seminars held at the schools (Student Teaching Handbook, 1978; School Based Teacher Education, 1981). These seminars replace, and count as credit for, the normal university course work. The focus in some of the Deakin University courses is on problems which arise directly out of the student teaching experience (Ferguson, 1982). Early reports from Deakin (ibid.) were very positive, but stressed the staff intensive nature of the project.

An early project at McGill University in 1967-68 featured a combination of university work on-campus Mondays and Fridays throughout the academic year, and the rest of the time spent in schools (Horowitz, 1974). Again, the group was small, consisting of nineteen highly selected graduates. Even with the careful selection, at least one student reported an extremely negative experience, during which "she concluded she must be maladjusted" (Horowitz, 1974:88). Most of the other students were very enthusiastic about the program, but their written and spoken comments prompted Horowitz to reflect that optimum success of extended field experiences depends on the field experience being seen as part of the total program, that is, that theory and practice should be carefully and deliberately integrated. He further stated his belief that during internships "interns should come together for seminars on a regular basis to reflect on their experiences" (Horowitz, 1974:90).

Sixteen students and cooperating teachers at the University of Utah entered into formal, written contracts regarding expectations of each other (Davis and Davis, 1977). University supervisors reported that they were required to expend more energy developing good relationships with students and teachers than hitherto, but that they felt more effective in linking theory with practice. This appears reasonable, as the amount of trouble shooting and negotiations should be drastically reduced because mutual expectations are written down. This would leave more time for helping students to forge links between theory and practice.

The Northern Teacher Education Program (NORTEP), based in La Ronge, Saskatchewan, has a student enrolment of about 100 native Indians. To reduce domestic dislocation, the program in Years I, II and the first half of Year III involves students in classes at La Ronge two weeks in each month, and in work as Native Instructors in their home community school for the other two weeks each month. This obviously provides enormous potential for integrating theory and practice. According to Cook and More (1979), this potential has not yet been fully realized. It also means that students are in classrooms before they have had an opportunity to master either teaching skills or course content. "A few cooperating teachers expressed very serious reservations about the students because of this" (Cook and More, 1979: 2-16).

Each of the above programs represented an ambitious attempt to forge stronger links between what was taught on-campus and what happened during student teaching experience. Each program, however, except NORTEP, involved a very small percentage of the total student population in the institution. One program which deliberately planned to improve theory-practice integration for the whole of the student population is now in operation at Montview University. It is the elementary teacher education program and has been described in structural detail in Chapter 2. A detailed discussion of participants' views of its success is found in the data section of this chapter.

Techniques for Improving Theory-Practice Integration

The literature has no shortage of advice in this area. Some is basically exhortation to follow certain general principles. Another group of articles gives details of techniques actually in use.

General Principles

Many of the current problems of theory-practice integration were what Hopkins (1981) called rooted in the ecology of teacher training institutions. By this he meant the total effects of the internal and external environments of such institutions. He claimed that the incorporation of teachers' colleges into universities often caused particular problems for faculty members of the teachers' colleges. To improve theory-practice integration, he argued for institutions which trained teachers to have an expectation of life-long education, with continuing access to faculties of education. Researchers in teacher training institutions would engage in research more useful to teachers, and thus the theory could be fed directly into practice by practising teachers. A recruitment leaflet 'How About Teaching!' (undated), produced by the Provincial Teachers' Federation echoed this argument when it proclaimed "Good teachers are life-long learners" (ibid.:no page). The emphasis on more pedagogical research in teacher training institutions was repeated by Cooley (1982). He argued that disciplinary research, or "whoring after the disciplines" (ibid.:30) distracted educational researchers from their main task of producing research that can improve the performances of professional educators.

Corrigan (1982), drawing on his primarily United States experience, argued that one semester of student teaching near the end of the training program was inadequate. He proposed extensive laboratory and field experiences and a gradual introduction to teaching practice, beginning with easy, achievable goals and moving slowly to more sophisticated skills. Many western Canadian universities already seem to fit this pattern (Hopkins, 1982a, Appendix A; IV, 1982; Faculty of Education, U.B.C., 1978; Lowe, 1982).

Specific Techniques

In Black Paper 1977, a collection of writings generally regarded as promoting conservatism and traditional values in education, Allen (1977) argued for restructuring teacher training radically. He would offer a brief skills course, then a lengthy period spent in schools, teaching first part-time and then full-time. After that, Allen claimed, many unsuitable candidates would withdraw, and the remaining students would be able to interpret the theory taught them. Allen did not discuss the damage which might be done to children by the unsuitable candidates before they withdrew.

Two separate reports of successful integration of theory and practice contain disquieting assertions about the process. Slavin noticed that psychological theory and educational research results only rarely seemed to impinge on practice. He attributed this to inadequate attempts to disseminate the theory to field personnel and outlined a five-step process to follow. Slavin insisted that each of the very time-consuming steps was essential if successful translation of the theory into practice was to occur. More disturbing still was the work of Joyce and Showers (1982). This was a report of the use of training procedures that they claimed virtually guaranteed the successful implementation of almost any approach. Joyce and Showers (ibid.:14) called their process 'coaching.' David Berliner, in a conversation with Brandt (1982), claimed that Joyce's coaching was the "one best way to improve teacher effectiveness" (ibid.:12). The difficulty is not in the procedures required, which are quite straightforward, namely:

1. Study of the theory involved
2. Observation of demonstrations
3. Practice and feedback under protected conditions (with peers or small numbers of pupils)

4. Further observation and feedback ('coaching') as the new skill is brought into the regular classroom repertoire.

The process appears to be impractical for teacher training institutions because of the number of trials required. Joyce and Showers (1982) insisted that at least fifteen to twenty demonstrations with different children plus ten to fifteen 'protected' trials are vital if teachers are to achieve meta-understanding of the new theory in practice. It would be a rare program which could allow that level of time commitment for each of the skills needed by trainee teachers. However, there may be technological answers to the problems posed by both the number of observations and the number of 'protected' trials required. Two possible solutions are presented in the data section of this chapter.

An experiment by Leith (1982) was unusual in two important ways. First, experiments utilizing control group designs in this area are rare indeed, this being the only experiment of that nature discovered in the theory-practice literature search. Second, Leith addressed the little researched area of personality differences in teacher trainees. He showed that students having different personality types responded significantly differently to different versions of micro-teaching. For example, anxious introverts in three randomly selected groups were exposed to (a) structured micro-teaching with videotape replay and supportive critique from a supervisor; (b) micro-classes where no videotape was used and unstructured critique was given by fellow students; and (c) no micro-teaching, but the normal full preparation for teaching rounds. Those anxious introverts who had the structured micro-teaching received significantly higher teaching practice grades than either the micro-class or control group students. (Assessments were made by personnel who were not aware that any of the students were taking part in an experiment.) Non-anxious extraverts, on the other hand, performed better after receiving the micro-class treatment. Leith argued that Eysenck's theory of extraversion/introversion as "degree of arousability" accounted for the results. Essentially, anxious introverts required minimum environmental stimulation to perform (and learn) optimally. The carefully structured micro-teaching was therefore ideal for such students. The non-anxious extraverts, however, needed the extra stimulation of the relatively unstructured micro-class to arouse them to near optimum level.

Leith extended his analysis far beyond what is reported here. Enough has been reported, however, to indicate that the efficiency of learning to translate theory into practice may depend on personal characteristics which are relatively immutable. It may behoove designers of teacher training programs to take these personal characteristics into account, in order to maximize behavior change after exposure to theory.

A Broader View of Theory-Practice Integration

This section is less concrete and more speculative than the preceding ones, and as such, leads naturally into the main data section which follows it.

Educational theory can never 'work,' claimed Wadd (1982:219), who argued that attempts to make educational theory work should be abandoned. The teacher's expertise in handling day-to-day classroom life comes from what Wadd called 'contextual theory.' This develops on the job, and it is only after the teacher's accumulation of 'contextual theory' frees him or her from immediate management worries that educational theory can become useful. Schwanke (1980) supported this position when he stated that teachers' most frequent complaints about their preparation related to issues of classroom management and discipline. The newly graduated teacher must first grapple with and solve these problems. The teacher is then able to use the educational theory that was learned in pre-service training as a "continuous dialogue of critique" (Wadd, 1982:225).

Wadd's assertion that contextual theory cannot be acquired in teacher training institutions was not well established. In fact, it could be argued that Joyce and Showers (1982) provided a model for the acquisition of contextual theory in their 'coaching' referred to earlier. Wadd's discussion is useful, however, even if it only reminds teachers that they were once exposed (during pre-service training) to a body of educational theory with which to compare their present practices. Further, Wadd's notion of 'contextual theory' reminds teacher educators that to be useful in classrooms, theory needs to be securely linked to practice.

Joyce (1981) addressed this problem. He pointed out that even after the study of theory, viewing demonstrations, practice and feedback, very few student teachers are able to apply a theory regularly in the classroom. They also need to learn when to use the strategy, how to adapt it to different children and how to simultaneously manage a class while using the strategy. This sounds not unlike Wadd's contextual theory. Joyce (1981) also argued that education professors must model teaching techniques or "undermine their own message by example" (ibid.:14). That is to say, they must demonstrate in practice the theories they profess.

This theme was amplified by Zeichner and Tabachnik (1981). In a discussion of possible reasons why student teachers apparently become progressively more conservative in their orientation to teaching during teacher education programs, Zeichner and Tabachnik claimed that some education professors modelled conservative behavior while rewarding students for expressing liberal philosophies. This separation between theory and practice led to students mouthing liberal slogans while behaving conservatively, according to Zeichner and Tabachnik (ibid.). The reported liberal to conservative progress, under this interpretation, is spurious. In fact, the students remained conservative throughout.

In a discussion of the ways in which Canadian faculties of education attempt to prepare teachers able to meet society's demands, Gillis (1980) raised a number of crucial questions about the theory-practice debate:

1. Do teacher educators discriminate between theories based on empirical study and those based on beliefs about the nature of education?

2. How are the theories which are taught in education faculties selected?

3. Is the plethora of new process-product research (e.g., MacKay, 1979) reflected in curricula of education faculties?

4. Do education professors acknowledge and teach the "many good practices for which theoretical explanations have not yet been provided"? (Gillis, 1980:10). Here, a case could be made for teaching such practices and simultaneously seeking 'grounded theory' in the sense in which Glaser and Strauss (1967) used the term.

In the data section which follows, a number of questions will be addressed. The aim at all times is to illuminate what is thought, said and done about integrating theory and practice in the Elementary Practicum at Montview University.

Data and Interpretations

The data below are organized into issues. The issues were those which were seen to be important by faculty members at Montview University. It will be obvious that the issues are by no means independent of each other, as Guba (1978) suggested they should be. The researcher believes that the related issues reflect reality more closely than would a set of independent issues.

Many of the issues discussed in later chapters are also related to the theory-practice integration issues examined below.

In a literal sense, all the quotations used below are 'out of context.' Where it was feasible and desirable, the context was briefly explained in parentheses, together with the code number of the respondent and an indication of the respondent's position, e.g., (64, principal, rural school, speaking of intern's preparedness for internship).

Some quotations were modified slightly, to allow the meaning of a comment to be understood. Expletives and profanities were replaced by line segments, thus "he's a ------ ---."

Nature of Theory-Practice Integration

What is Meant by Theory-Practice Integration at Montview University?

Introduction. At a recent conference at Montview, an audience member recalled the advice given her by her father when she had tried, as a child, to learn a new skill. "Listen, watch, try; if you fail, listen, watch and try again." This simple maxim incorporates much of what the faculty in the Montview University Faculty of Education appear to mean when they talk of theory-practice integration. Many traditional teacher education programs offer classes in Psychology, Philosophy, Sociology and History of Education and leave students to make whatever links with practice they can.

At Montview, students in the second year EdGen226 cycle listen to expositions of teaching strategies, watch them demonstrated by instructors and their peers and then try the skills themselves in schools each Wednesday. This first try with real pupils, like the earlier try with their peers, is a 'provisional try.' Much stress is laid on the notion that students should feel free to continue to practise each skill until they achieve mastery. They should feel no sense of permanent failure if mastery is not achieved on the first attempt. Obviously, the success of the process is predicated on student exposure to committed and skillful EdGen226 instructors and cooperating teachers.

It is of interest that throughout the interviewing phase, few respondents raised the question of the actual relationship between theory and practice. Observation of the EdGen226 cycle suggested that theory was taken to be the language which enabled the student to understand what he was doing. If this was indeed the case, a more explicit statement of the relationship may be desirable. This might well lead to the inclusion in post-conferences of considerations of what students have learned in the light of the theory being studied that week.

Written statements by program people at Montview. A number of formal statements about this issue exist.

> Fundamental to all programs should be the integration of theory and practice, with a graduated, systematic practicum forming an integral part of each. (XVIII, 1980:12)

Under the heading 'Integrating School Experiences and EdGen226' (Pre-Internship Cooperating Teachers' Manual, n.d.:111):

> The next step involves students in some way practicing the skill or strategy they have just been learning about. . . . At this time, advisors discuss with the students how to practice the teaching skill taking into consideration both the information presented in the 218 and 228 classes and the requirements of the cooperating teacher.

Explaining the integration of EdGen226 (a course in general teaching skills and strategies) with subject area classes (ibid.:iv):

> We hope that by listing the skills taught in EdGen226 beside a list of the subjects taught in schools, you will be able to see that most of the skills taught in EdGen could be practiced while teaching a lesson in almost any subject in the school.

In a manual for interns, their cooperating teachers and faculty advisors, references were made to a "unique relationship with a faculty advisor and a cooperating teacher. Together, they try to relate theory and practice" (XI:3).

University administration attitude. The Montview University president stated unequivocally his support for the concept of theory-practice integration.

> This is an institution which believes that the integration of work with theory is a valid pedagogical approach to mind-stretching. I think it's an excellent way to get people to appreciate that there isn't a great dichotomy between vocational development and intellectual or academic development. This debate about it's either academic or it's vocational is a bunch of nonsense. (61, President, Montview University)

Program arrangement for theory-practice integration. There seemed to be a fundamental difference in beliefs about how to structure a teacher education course which was illustrated by the following quotes.

> The second strength would be a specific focus on skills and strategies, that we're actually isolating some teacher characteristics that are really related to student achievement, . . . and we focus on those in the specific sections, and then with the follow-up on micro-teaching and that's immediately implemented in that same week in the school. (33, senior faculty, EdGen instructor)

> I think the program is atomistic in design—bottom-up rather than top-down process. The professors seem to believe that a teacher is the sum of his parts, rather than a whole greater than the sum of the parts. (54, faculty member, not an EdGen instructor)

Certainly, the stress on identification of crucial teaching skills and strategies and the teaching of these skills independent of context, suggested that a 'bottom-up' design methodology is in place at Montview. What was not clear was whether this method of curriculum design was inferior to the 'top-down' approach. Also unclear was whether or not the two approaches to curriculum design could be reconciled. It might indeed be argued that the top-down approach eventually yields a set of skills when its downward traverse is complete. These could perhaps be the basis for discussion with those 'bottom-up' people who prefer to begin course building with a list of desired skills.

What Happens to Students during Theory-Practice Integration?

A senior faculty member argued that little or nothing is known about what occurs in students' minds as a result of attempting to induce them to relate the theory presented to them, with their school experiences.

> You can't teach people to integrate theory and practice. . . . You can present theory and practice together, but you can't force students to do the integration . . . It happens, if it happens, in students' heads. (31)

Another senior faculty member explained what faculty aimed for in theory-practice integration. He assumed that the link would be made in students' minds. "Whatever goes on in the Practicum should be in their minds, relevant to the theory they're learning" (3).

It is the broad differences in approach within the faculty to the question of theory-practice integration, which may account for an apparent paradox in the results of the survey of Canadian teacher education institutions cited above (Hopkins, 1979). Montview faculty members cited 'The Integration of Theory and Practice' in answer to the question 'What goals are achieved most effectively in this faculty?' and also to the question 'What goals are achieved least effectively in this faculty?' (The Management of Change in Teacher Education, 1979:5,9,10).

Views of other interested parties. It was interesting to note that representatives of the Provincial Teachers' Association and the School Trustees' Association differed in their beliefs about the preferred focus of theory-practice integration.

> The cooperating teacher is the focal point. The faculty advisor plays a major role in linking practical experience with theory. Therefore the faculty advisor should spend much more effort with cooperating teachers. (Provincial Teachers' Association representative, speaking to a meeting at Montview, 1983)

This approach has elements in common with that of Bowman (1979), who stated that the school visitations by faculty advisors to supervise students are often artificial, ineffective and wasteful. Bowman argued for a vision of faculty advisors as resource persons. They would go into schools and work with groups of interns, teachers or both, bringing new techniques for solving problems and, as a bonus, seeing the real world of school in a way not possible in their traditional role.

The provincial School Trustees' Association member, on the other hand, was convinced that taking theory to teachers in the field was not the answer.

> I think you've got to do it pre-service. Exposure to professors at the front edge. I think you do it by putting it into heads, by modifying what they tell students about good practice. Therefore, professors have to keep up to date. (86)

It seems that dialogue between the School Trustees' Association and the Teachers' Association about this specific issue would be desirable.

Theory-Practice Integration—Past, Present and Future

In talking about the way subject-field integration has developed at Montview, a senior faculty member said:

> One of the things we haven't done is sat down and written this stuff out, because it has been developmental, because in writing things down we put closure on them and we've been hesitant to do that. (51)

Another faculty member claimed that:

> Overwhelmingly, the literature in the past ten years has been in the direction we're taking [competency based, humanistic]. (37)

In this context, it is interesting to note a very recent trend to question the relevance of efforts to integrate theory and practice in teacher education. As explained in the literature section, Wadd (1982) claimed that educational theory can never 'work' and Carr (1980) argued that a totally different concept of educational theory and research was needed. Both writers appear to have important things to say to contemporary teacher educators with a desire to offer the best possible teacher preparation program.

In the following section a survey is presented of the various parts of the Montview program in which attempts to integrate them with practice are made.

Theory-Practice Integration in the Program

An examination of the Montview elementary degree structure (see Chapter 2) shows that Year Two, the Pre-internship year, is the only part of the degree to be specially structured to promote theory-practice integration. Nevertheless, faculty members appeared to regard the issue as important in all years. When challenged about the difficulty of achieving theory-practice integration in years other than the Pre-internship year, faculty members did not claim that the issue was only important in Second Year. Instead, they provided explanations of how theory was integrated with practice in the other years. Therefore, although the Second Year is the focus of this section, the other years are briefly surveyed as well.

First Year Experience

Most students agree that getting into schools early in their program is good. Typical of the remarks was the following:

> Getting out there is great—it's reality. Right at the beginning. Some think it's bad, and there should be more preparation first. (60, First Year student)

A member of staff of a native teacher education program pointed out that their program included a full day per week in schools in First Year.

> Sure makes a difference, it's one of the reasons why faculty here are so impressed with them [native students] when they come in in Second Year. (15)

There is, of course, a number of possibly significant differences between students in the ordinary elementary program and those in the native program. Two differences which are probably important are the older mean age of the native students, and the higher proportion of native students with children of their own.

By way of illustrating the crucial effect of instructors on students' perceptions of classes, the following are offered.

> ________ [the EdGen126 instructor] is such an excellent teacher. We had a chance [in schools] to meet lots of teachers. ________ suggested it. (59, First Year student)

> EdGen126 was useless. We had a stupid book. The prof. got off on tangents. Lots of people felt this. (74, a pre-intern, about her experiences the year before)

In spite of the negative tone of the remarks, this student was happy with the time spent in school.

One area which may require clarification for cooperating teachers is the faculty attitude to actual teaching during First Year. One student rejoiced in "lots of chances to teach" (59, First Year), while another felt that "we should be allowed to teach more" (4, First Year). As both students were in the same First Year section, the difference is probably in cooperating teachers' interpretation of "school involvement."

Second Year—The Pre-internship Year

The structure of this year appears to be ideal for promoting the integration of the Wednesday school experience with the university class material. It is intuitively sensible to present theoretical material for a portion of a week, and then require students to go to nearby schools to put the theory into practice for the rest of the week. In fact, almost every one of the large sample of pre-intern students to whom the researcher spoke commented that they believed the program to be a good one. These comments were frequently unsolicited. The work of Wideen and Fullan (Management of Change in Teacher Education, 1979) also indicated that Montview students have a more positive attitude to many aspects of their program than average English-speaking Canadian education students, especially in the area of theory-practice integration.

This positive attitude to the Montview program in general, and Practicum in particular, was also found in a very large majority of cooperating teachers, principals and superintendents interviewed.

Given these extremely positive global feelings about the Montview Practicum, it is perhaps disquieting to hear that a number of specific aspects of the Pre-internship year are widely regarded as unsatisfactory.

Problems with the crammed Fall semester schedule. Eight subject area classes are taught in the Fall semester. They are classes in Art, Health and Physical Education, Language, Mathematics, Music, Reading, Science and Social Science, each of two credit hours. Classes in four of these areas are offered in the first six weeks of the semester; the remaining four are covered in the last six weeks. This concentration on only four classes at a time reduces the potential interference between subjects.

However, an inevitable result of the arrangement is that the first four subject areas are completed before students begin their Wednesday school visits. Thus the potential for integrating the theory taught in the first four subject area classes with practice in the schools is severely curtailed.

Further, there are four sets of EdGen226 skills—lesson planning, planning objectives and evaluation, providing set and closure, and varying presentation—which are taught before the students begin school visits. Theory-practice integration for these skills is thus limited to the micro-teaching sessions on Mondays, plus any later school-based practice where the student is able to work on more than one skill per lesson. Even if this is done, the benefits of practising the skill in a classroom within a few days of discussing it in university class are missing.

A means of reducing demands on cooperating teachers which is currently being considered would exacerbate this problem. This is to delay the beginning of school visits until after Christmas. This was suggested by a faculty administrator, in the context of a discussion about possible solutions to the shortage of cooperating teachers for the increased student enrolment.

Many faculty members are gravely concerned about the brevity of the subject area courses.

> They've always got something due. I don't think they've got time to do any kind of reflective thinking. (8, senior faculty member, in context of talking about the benefits of attending a university)

> In second year, they're so overwhelmed. What's missing is a time to reflect. The heavy pressure affects the transfer of teaching skills. One of my big dissatisfactions is that six weeks for preparation of an elementary teacher to teach ________ [name of subject] satisfactorily in schools is not enough time. (68, faculty member)

> I feel very strongly that six weeks of two credit hours is a waste of time. (46, faculty member)

Both Benham (1979) and Zeichner (1980b) argued for the provision of time in teacher education programs for the development of reflective teachers who would continue to learn after graduating. Zeichner saw this as a partial solution to the impossibility of fully equipping student teachers with all needed skills (ibid.:17).

A different sort of concern about one of the subject area courses suggested that not all such courses were perceived to be related to practice.

> In ________ [name of course] there was no learning. It was just lectures, mainly content. Not related to teaching. (23, pre-intern)

More common were complaints from pre-interns about the workload in the fall of Second Year. This has to be understood against a tradition of students complaining of overwork. However, students from later years, with a vested interest in identifying their current workload as the heaviest yet experienced, nevertheless looked back to Second Year as very much heavier. Further, several cooperating teachers volunteered their opinions that the workload for pre-interns was very heavy. A selection of comments is given below.

> In six weeks, there's one week introduction, one week of tests, and four weeks with a full semester's work crammed in. There's no problem with the difficulty of the work, but the weight of it! (89, pre-intern)
>
> All 218 classes in one semester, it's a scramble—no time to incorporate. (39, mature age pre-intern, who also suggested stretching the 218 classes over two semesters, eventually pushing the Internship into Fourth Year, or considering an extended semester, September-June)
>
> The workload in third semester—too heavy to the point where there is so much material to cover that you miss a lot. Just touch the surface. Much depends on the instructor—if you can view the overall picture it's all right. (34, pre-intern)
>
> Some kids are cheating to survive. (17, mature age pre-intern, talking about student response to one particularly heavy subject area class)
>
> You never give one thing your best. (44, pre-intern)
>
> There's too much in Second Year. Too little time. Too many targets and skills. (11, very experienced cooperating teacher, talking of areas she would change in an environment of unlimited resources)
>
> Workload at the university is so heavy, students feel crushed, worried about good lessons, they can't put their heart into preparation. (70, new cooperating teacher)

Support for the notion of at least relative overload of pre-interns was provided by observations made in the Montview education library on evenings and weekends. There was usually a disproportionately large number of pre-interns in the library, even allowing for the fact that many interns were spending the term in areas distant from Montview, and inaccessible to the library.

Another kind of approach to assessing the reality of this problem is to examine the Montview B.Ed. Elementary Degree course outline. Although in a 128 credit hours program, each of the four years has 32 credit hours, and each semester 16 credit hours, the third semester is the only one to have as many as eight separate subject units (each of two credit hours). In the researcher's experience, both as a university teacher and as a student, the work load for eight two-hour units is generally greater than for four four-hour units. This seems to be related to the difficulty experienced by instructors in designing short courses whose time demands remain within the stated number of credit-hours.

It appears, then, that there is a genuine cause for concern at this point in the program. It may be that the laudable aim of linking theory and practice across all curriculum areas has led to a real overload for pre-intern students in their third semester. Unfortunately, this not only has the effect of generating student dissatisfaction, but also of reducing the likelihood of them making links between theory and practice.

It seems probable that any program adjustment which reduced the workload would in turn enhance the development of the reflective thinking referred to (by various names) by students, teachers and advisors.

Specific elements of the Pre-internship year. The Monday micro-teaching segment of the EdGen226 cycle generated strong polarized feelings. As such, it appeared to be an appropriate issue for a modified judicial evaluation. A report of this segment appears at the end of this chapter.

The Tuesday advisor-advisee meetings are considered as part of the interpersonal relationships issue in a later chapter. Certain features of the students' actual Wednesday experience in schools are examined as part of issues concerning faculty advisors and cooperating teachers. Some important aspects of the Thursday presentations of skills and strategies were discussed above.

The Friday 'Pre-intern Seminar' appeared to the researcher to be at once the least well conceptualized part of the EdGen cycle and the least valued by participants, many of whom had ceased to attend well before the end of the semester. The two comments by students quoted here may be at least partly rationalizations for their own non-attendance.

> Friday afternoon could go. All we did was sit and talk. (57, pre-intern student)

> The Friday p.m. thing was useless. These are the feelings of people I hang round with. I heard that it was cut. It didn't have a lot of sense to it. (74, pre-intern).

Officially, the session was to:

> Discuss feedback they [students] received about their classroom performance and what they would do the same or different another time to improve their teaching. (Pre-internship Cooperating Teachers' Manual, n.d.:111)

However, a full day had intervened since their Wednesday school experience, and on that day (Thursday) a new skill had been introduced.

If the effects of the time lag are considered in conjunction with the effects of the heavy work load discussed above, it becomes clear why little student enthusiasm was shown for the Friday session. If it is seen as vital to the EdGen226 cycle, consideration might be given to adjusting the cycle to link the pre-intern seminar more closely with the school experience to which it relates.

Third Year—The Internship Year

> The minimum professional requirement for certification as a teacher in the province is one full year of professional courses and half a year of Internship. (67, officer of the Department of Education)

The Elementary Program at Montview University exceeds the requirement of one full year of professional courses by at least twenty four credit hours (Faculty of Education, Montview University, 1978). The Internship extends for half a year, and is generally regarded by interns and cooperating teachers as "about the right length" (79, 48, interns; 5, cooperating teacher of intern). Isolated interns report exploitation or stories of exploitation:

> I've heard a lot saying it's too long. The teacher sits back, gets the pay cheque, while we're doing all the work. (48, intern)

Others quite reasonably ask why they should continue to pay full university fees while serving Internships many miles from the university.

The point at issue for this study was the question of the feasibility of theory-practice integration while isolated from the main source of theory. Faculty members argued that theory-practice integration was still of major importance.

> To me, we look at a higher level of sophistication of those same skills. And combinations of them. (14, faculty member, advisor)

This faculty member went on to argue that the Record of Demonstrated Performance[1] allowed a continuity of skill development from the single day per week, through the two-week block of Pre-internship into Internship. Ideally, this would occur, and indeed some students stated that they continued to use the Record during Internship. Many advisors, however, stated that their advisees had never referred to the book after the end of the Pre-internship Year.

> In Internship it's there [theory-practice integration] if there's a strong faculty supervisor/cooperating teacher support system. . . . At the end of Internship, I ask the intern to look at where he was at the beginning and end of the experience. "What have you learned? What do you still need?" This provides a link into integration for the classes that are left. . . . (37, faculty member, has supervised interns)

The strong faculty supervisor/cooperating teacher support system referred to has a good chance of operating if the student retains the same faculty advisor. The careful monitoring of theory-practice integration can proceed uninterrupted throughout the student's training. However, in many cases, for many reasons, there is a change of advisor during the program, often at the end of the Pre-internship Year. When a different advisor has to assume responsiblity for a student at the beginning of Internship, there is a reduced possibility of maintaining theory-practice integration at an optimum level for the student.

---

[1] This is a notebook in which students keep a record of their mastery of skills throughout the Pre-internship Year. They are expected to continue to use it during Internship.

> I picked up eight interns [at the beginning of their Internship]. I hadn't met them before. There was no trust relationships. It was very hard to build a trust relationship with them. You build that with pre-interns much easier. (14, very experienced advisor)

"One of our jobs is to keep reminding them," said another faculty member (68). When it was suggested that such reminders might occur as infrequently as once a month in many cases (the frequency of advisor visits) he agreed, and pointed to the possibility of even less frequent advisor visits in the future, with rises in the costs of accommodation and travel. He foresaw the need to eventually move to teleconferencing to reduce these expenses, but recognized that some advisors would fight to retain the on-site advisory mode.

Whatever happens in the future, it is clear that opportunities for faculty-monitored integration of theory and practice during Internship are limited. It becomes a question of values whether or not to introduce a major structural change in Third Year to facilitate a greater degree of directed theory-practice integration. A model used in some Portuguese universities (Alves, 1983) could be adopted with only minor changes. Every two weeks, students in their Internship Year return to the university. They discuss problems or concerns which have arisen in their classroom work and thus the seminars have immediate relevance to the students. The wide geographical distribution of interning students at Montview would present a problem if this model were to be adopted. This could be solved by requiring students to undergo Internship close to Montview. (This would also reduce the costs and workload associated with the Internship.)

Fourth Year—No School Practice

As suggested in Chapter 2, the reason for the lack of any opportunity to further integrate theory with practice in Fourth Year may be largely historical. Now that it is no longer possible to receive a Provincial Teaching Certificate after three years of study, there is no compulsion to fit the required half year Practicum into the first three years of the degree. Thus the way is clear to consider either shifting some of the current first three years' school experience into the Fourth Year, or providing additional experience over and above the current offering.

Either possibility is fraught with serious difficulties. Shifting the Internship into Fourth Year results in a situation where students who discover that they are not suited to teaching during their first concentrated exposure to it have effectively spent one more year than is now the case before beginning to train for another vocation. Adding extra school experience raises the spectre of having to identify another one hundred cooperating teachers per year. These would need to be highly competent individuals to cope with the sorts of school experience that are discussed in the Fourth Year context.

> I'd like another four weeks in school when they could start focussing on really looking at individual needs and really get into diagnostic prescription-type work. . . . Our teachers never get to that in a four year teacher education program. (33, faculty member intimately involved with teaching practice)

Another staff member pointed out that:

> The diagnostic experience would be most appropriate if they could have it before interning. But they can't have everything. (14, faculty member, pre-intern advisor)

For this type of school experience, it may be possible to place more than one student with each cooperating teacher. If the diagnostic work is seen by teachers to be useful, there may be no difficulty in securing sufficient classrooms for placement.

A difficult mechanical problem is also associated with fitting in extra school experience around a huge variety of students' courses in Fourth Year. One solution would be to run the school experience after other university classes cease.

A faculty proposal for a follow-up to the Internship in the form of discussion seminars appeared in 1980 (XIX, 1980). However, the seminars had no school experience component and were to receive no academic credit. The following year, a sample of interns and cooperating teachers were asked to comment on the possibility of some form of post-Internship program allowing more application of theory in practice (IX, 1981). Both cooperating teachers and interns were very enthusiastic about the general principle (means 3.96 for teachers, 4.07 for interns on a scale 1-5 with 5 most positive, ibid.: 5). When asked to rate fifteen possible forms of experience, school-based activities rated very well, but seminars received only moderate support from the interns in the sample.

Among the students interviewed in this study, there was overwhelming, but not unanimous, support for a Fourth Year school experience. Those who were content with the present pattern raised several interesting points.

> Because of the Internship, I'll learn more in the next one and a half years of course work. (79, intern)
>
> Shouldn't leave Internship too long, because it allows for final self-screening. (72, pre-intern)

> Nice not to have lesson plans [to prepare], and a chance to learn content. (78, pre-intern, interviewed in the middle of the hectic third semester)

Comments in support of a Fourth Year school experience segment ranged from vehement to thoughtful:

> It's terrible, I'm really upset. I intend to come back and visit. (25, intern)
>
> I think it's silly. You're not in the atmosphere at all. You forget so many things. It's so depressing. (7 and 52, two pre-interns, one of whom has a number of siblings who trained as teachers at Montview)
>
> It's stupid, senseless. It should be when they're really preparing you. (74, pre-intern)
>
> I'd like Internship last semester of course. You're really excited about ideas and you want to start teaching immediately. (61, Fourth Year student)
>
> Could have Internship in the last year. During the next three semesters, I'm going to lose confidence. (48, intern)
>
> You go right from hot to cold. Doesn't sound too good, does it? (53, pre-intern, referring to Internship followed by eighteen months without school experience)
>
> Why not have half a day a week in Fourth Year? (27, pre-intern)
>
> Internship should be in Fourth Year, with a few weeks in Third Year. (25, intern)
>
> Seems possible to consider it. There's the problem of cooperating teacher availability. (Deanship candidate responding to a question from a student about Fourth Year school experience)

In summary, most students wanted a further opportunity for theory-practice integration in Fourth Year, cooperating teachers were enthusiastic, some faculty members saw it as desirable. It will, if implemented, create more work for teachers and faculty members. It remains to weigh up the costs and benefits, and then either implement some extra school experience, or convince its supporters that the costs outweigh the benefits.

Where Does the Theory Come From?

This issue deals with the question of how the relatively few skills and strategies taught in Second Year were selected from the huge domain of possible strategies. To a critical theorist (see Bates, 1982), or anyone concerned with the hidden curriculum in educational institutions or, indeed, to any concerned curriculum theorist, this would be a crucial, if not the most crucial, issue. No respondent at Montview spoke in this vein, either during interviews, or informally. In fact, three of twenty faculty respondents saw the question of the selection of theory to be taught to be of trivial importance, eight to be of crucial importance and the remaining nine to be of moderate importance.

It is an exceptionally difficult issue to resolve. There are almost certainly no 'right answers' to the question 'From where should the theory taught in education courses come?.' Certainly, there appears to be a move away from simply seeking the classroom implications of Psychology, Sociology and the other traditional disciplines (see Carr, 1980; Cooley, 1982; Gillis, 1980). Piaget, who probably wrote more about the cognitive development of the child than any other man in history, was wont to warn educationalists against seeking the implications of his work for the classroom (this did not prevent an avalanche of books purporting to do just that).

A current trend is to call for a 'science of pedagogy' related to, but different from, the traditional disciplines (Carr, 1980; Cooley, 1982). Such a science does not yet exist. From where, then, can the theory, which is to be integrated into classroom practice, come? Various explanations of what actually happens at Montview were received by the researcher.

> The methods people decided what was to be done in the classroom and in what order. We worked backwards from that . . . and pulled out the most relevant threads of Educational Psychology. (3, faculty member who was on faculty when the new program was designed)

> We implemented an experiment based on some ideas and developmentally modified it until we came up with something. (51, faculty member who has had close ties to the program for some time)

> The first proposal outlined the course. We went from topics to skills. . . . We had input from staff and curriculum people concerned with sequencing the skills for students. Therefore, management comes first, planning comes early. We used many resources. Sydney micro-skills was one. We always looked at the whole, we weren't atomistic. (42, faculty member who was also on faculty when the new program was designed)

Two points are of interest. First, the comment about management skills being first is in error by five class weeks. It is the sixth set of skills and is introduced after the students have begun school experience. Second, there is an interesting difference of opinion between the claim of always looking at the whole, and not being atomistic, and the response below.

> The theory the students get might come from textbooks, but sometimes comes from an incoherent set of handouts without a common frame of reference. Out of context, these bits are frequently misunderstood. (31, faculty member with limited experience with the EdGen226 cycle)

Two rather less critical comments expressed a weaker form of the same idea—that there was no single coherent structure within which the skills and strategies were embedded.

> There's no analysis at all. Just a lot of gut feelings. (8, faculty member, explaining how the package of skills was put together. The same person also stated that he had never experienced as well planned and organized a developmental theory-practice relationship as the one at Montview.)

> No one does know what a good teacher is. Although an old hand would probably say I know, but I can't put it down on paper, and I guess what this program does is at least try. (31, faculty member)

The university president expressed his own opinion that "the whole process of education is pretty much a matter of faith" (6).

The surprising truth seems to be that after over a century of 'modern' education, there is not a well-accepted theory or even set of skills which, when used properly, will promote pupils' learning in some predictable way. Certainly there are sets of skills which have been shown to produce gains in children's test scores. MacKay (1979) demonstrated that it was possible to train teachers to change their classroom behavior in at least twenty eight specified ways and that many of these teacher behavior changes were significantly correlated with gains in Mathematics achievement at Grades 3 and 6, and gains in Reading achievement at Grade 6 level.

On a more global level, the work of Berliner (1982) on academic learning time has consistently shown that pupil achievement can be improved over a wide range of grades and subjects by attention to a few simple techniques used by teachers.

It is possible that by teaching a judicious selection of such skills, the acquisition of Wadd's 'contextual theory' (1982) might be advanced, perhaps even to the point where new teachers begin with a reasonably well-developed contextual theory. It could even be argued that the very positive reception accorded recent Montview elementary graduates in schools is largely due to their unusually early mastery of contextual theory. (There were those, of course, among the faculty, who argued that the positive comments arose from some sort of

Hawthorne effect, or the natural propensity of school people to tell university people only good things about their graduates.)

One of the criticisms aimed at the mixture of skills taught in EdGen226 is that not all of them are grounded in some common frame of reference (see quote above). However, Gillis (1980, cited above) argued for the inclusion in teacher education courses of "the many good practices for which theoretical explanations have not yet been provided" (ibid.:10). Montview does this.

In summary, there appear to be four important comments to be made about where the theory taught in education courses comes from.

1. There is, as yet, no science of pedagogy.

2. The history of drawing implications from other disciplines for use in education courses has not been encouraging.

3. There are, however, large numbers of specific, and a few global process-product studies from which skills and strategies might be selected.

4. The act of selection is value laden. There are plenty of skills available for running quiet, traditional classes; there are some for running more open, child-centred classes.

If faculty members can appreciate the implications of these four statements and particularly the first and the fourth, there may be enhanced opportunities for more effective collaboration in the eventual aim of improving school children's learning.

Is Theory-Practice Integration Seen to be Effective?

The issue of whether the rhetoric of theory-practice integration describes what actually happens in this domain at Montview is a complex one. At a superficial level, it is interesting to return to the section titled 'Concerns about Poor Theory-Practice Integration' in the literature portion of this chapter. That section dealt with a number of cases where students and sometimes cooperating teachers bemoaned the irrelevance of university courses to the real world of teaching. It is possible to state with confidence that the Montview situation bears very little resemblance to these cases. Although they had ample opportunity to do so, very few of the people interviewed claimed that all or even most of the program was irrelevant to the classroom. Certainly, some individual courses were identified as unrelated to the world of teaching, but it is clear that the Montview program is a quantum leap ahead of the examples cited in the 'Concerns about Poor Theory-Practice Integration' section of this chapter, as far as student acceptance is concerned.

Part of this acceptance may be attributable to a phenomenon noted by Zeichner (1980b). He claimed that if education students are taught survival skills only, they tended to say that their courses were relevant, but to do little reflective thinking, then, or later as permanent teachers. The Montview program includes a great deal more than mere survival skills, although these are prominent in the first three quarters of EdGen226. There are even two sessions in March on the development of thinking processes but the focus is on children's thinking processes rather than Zeichner's 'reflective thinking' processes (ibid.) for student teachers. It seems likely that the widespread perception that the course work at Montview University is relevant to school practice is based on more than merely the presence of some survival skills in EdGen226.

The theory-practice integration area was examined by seeking opinion about two questions:

1. Is EdGen226 integrated with what takes place during school practice on Wednesdays?

2. Is the theory of the subject area classes EdMath218, EdArt218, etc. . . . integrated with the skills and strategy course EdGen226?

The answer to both questions is that it happens to some degree, but not completely. This may seem a reasonable state of affairs, but is not seen to be so by one of the key faculty members in the EdGen226 area.

> We need to insist that the target [strategy for the week] is used Mondays [micro-teaching] and Wednesdays [in schools]. Advisors sometimes don't worry about the target for the week. (42, faculty member, EdGen226 Instructor, during a review meeting of faculty members considering student progress halfway through the Pre-internship Year)

Micro-teaching—School Practice Match

The most common explanation given for the imperfect match between the Monday micro-teaching target and the target used in school practice the following Wednesday seems prima facie eminently reasonable.

> Sometimes, lots and lots of times, it's not possible to work in the topic for the week on Wednesdays. Those skills don't necessarily come up. (28, pre-intern)

Others cited a good deal of flexibility given them by EdGen instructors and cooperating teachers.

> I work from first planning the lesson, then fit in a target. My cooperating teacher encourages my ideas. Many times I've gone back to catch up on earlier ones [skills]. Especially from before we went out. (42, pre-intern. Last sentence refers to the fact that four skills are covered before students begin school visits.)

> You don't have to do what you discussed that week. Our instructor says it's all right. (78, pre-intern)

It seems that a working compromise has been reached. Many respondents commented that, although they were unable to integrate the theory for the week with the Wednesday school experience, they would probably cover all of the skills during the course of the year, or later.

> I'll do it when it fits. (78, pre-intern)

> I'll finish Pre-internship without covering all the skills. I can always do it next year. (16, pre-intern)

Micro-teaching

It may be appropriate to consider the question of the effectiveness of micro-teaching as such, given its pivotal role in the integration of theory and practice. Students displayed a very wide range of opinion about micro-teaching.

> It's worthwhile—we have a wonderful group. We really do focus, you don't have so many distractions. (80, pre-intern, from the section whose instructor was quoted above on the need to insist that students practised the skill for the week on Wednesday)

> It may help change the attitude of some personalities. It helps because your peers get to give good feedback because they know you as a person as well. (23, pre-intern)

Taking a rather different line were the following remarks:

> I hate those Monday things. Last Monday I went home and cried. The feedback was bad. It [the lesson] went well on Wednesday. (74, pre-intern, who had given a micro-teaching lesson and received what appeared to the researcher, who observed the whole process, to be quite mild and fair critical feedback from the two student 'supervisors')

> I almost quit after the first micro-teaching. There was nothing good [in the feedback]. I was so upset. It would have been all right later on [in the semester]. (78, pre-intern)

Plate 2 in Chapter 2 illustrates the feedback situation. The potential is present for a quite intense interpersonal experience, especially given that the rest of the micro-class is looking on.

The work of Leith (1982), discussed above, may be especially pertinent here. Perhaps the latter two respondents may have been better suited by the very highly structured micro-teaching used by Leith. The former two students were obviously well suited by what occurred at Montview, which is what Leith called a micro-class.

Other students commented on the importance of the lab instructor.

> The idea is ideal. Every lab [micro-teaching group] is different according to the instructor. My lab is disorganized and has no communication. (34, pre-intern)

> It depends on the advisor and who is in the micro-teaching group. Some are good, some so idealistic. It was hard teaching elementary stuff to peers. . . . Our group discussed the value, most of us thought it was time-wasting. We asked if we could eliminate it, but it didn't happen. (61, Fourth Year student)

The negativity of the last comment may be explained by the fact that when this Fourth Year student was in Second Year (1980-81), all micro-teaching was supervised by the faculty advisors. This was a crippling load and some advisors possibly carried out the task in a more perfunctory way than they would have wished. The practice was discontinued the following year and micro-teaching substantially reduced. However, some faculty members saw the need for increasing the amount of micro-teaching again, and for the 1982-83 year, lab instructors were hired specifically to supervise micro-teaching.

A discussion between a lab coordinator and one of the lab instructors underlined several important aspects of micro-teaching.

> Coordinator:
>
> The Lab session . . . is necessary until Christmas. I'm not sure if it's as necessary after Christmas. Some will need it. Others are wasting their time. All need it initially to learn the pre and post conference and getting and giving feedback.
>
> Instructor:
>
> X [student name] feels the lab is a waste, so she hasn't grown by applying the post-conference learnings and feedback. The spiral here is not working [the spiral is where the EdGen226 cycle is repeated during the pre-intern year over and over at an increasingly higher level of sophistication]. (31 and 92, coordinator and lab instructor)

The student's own perception of micro-teaching was:

> Some theory is so basic—it's only common sense. Some seems very tedious. (82, pre-intern, very competent in the classroom. Impressed her cooperating teacher, faculty advisor and the researcher.)

Perhaps the most serious discontinuity between the rhetoric of the weekly micro-teaching followed by real experience in a classroom and what actually happens is brought about by the sheer mechanics of the system. Several students pointed out that only three students out of a group of about eight students actually taught a lesson in micro-teaching each week. Students therefore will micro-teach only four or five of the dozen or so skills.

Even if the micro-teaching could be provided for every student every week, it would still be sub-optimal, according to Berliner (1969:3):

> The micro-teaching technique which seemed to be effective consisted of an initial teaching session, a playback and a discussion of that session with a supervisor, and a second teaching of the same lesson with a new group of students.

More recent work by Joyce and Showers (1982) paints an even gloomier picture. This was discussed briefly in the literature section of this chapter. To achieve mastery of a new skill, according to Joyce and Showers, at least fifteen varied demonstrations and at least ten 'protected' trials are required. To provide the demonstrations, videotape appears to be an acceptable substitute to live demonstrations. Until now, the provision of at least ten sessions of protected practice for each skill seemed to be an insuperable barrier. However, providing protected practice will shortly become feasible due to the development of a piece of videodisk technology by a researcher at the University of Alberta (Parker, 1983). In its present state of development, education students use it to ask questions of a small class of Grade 5 children, regarding part of the story of King Midas of the Golden Touch. Typing the question on the keyboard of a small computer causes a picture of the class to appear on the screen, and children in the class to attempt to answer the question. Over four hundred questions and answers have been placed onto the disk, so it is unlikely that a student's question will not be on the disk. Even this possibility can be avoided by requiring students to pick the questions from a typed list of those which are on the disk. Students rapidly recognize when their questions are ambiguous or too complex. The degree of realism is high. One education student was heard to exclaim angrily "They're laughing at me."

Future developments include a facility for accepting spoken questions and the production of disks on other topic areas. One now in production deals with class management.

For any teacher education institution concerned to provide the maximum amount of protected or provisional teaching practice with the minimum recurring expenditure, this device appears to be ideal.

Subject Area Class—EdGen226 Integration

Ideally, the EdGen226 skill for the week is also taught in the subject area classes in the context of the various subjects. Thus, the EdGen226 skill for September 30 was 'varying presentation.' Math classes in that week might be discussing the teaching of triangles. The Math instructor could refer to different ways of presenting the concept of triangles. He might refer to the possibilities of drawing triangles on the chalkboard, having children make triangles of meccano pieces, using triangles (triangulation) to locate forest fires and so on, emphasizing the different ways a particular topic can be presented. Other subject area class instructors would teach in a similar way.

This seems to occur in some subject area classes but not others. One faculty member suggested that both subject area and instructor were important variables.

> Some [areas] lend themselves readily to integration, others not as readily. I believe that once a faculty member has a strong concept of the program, he can better select his content to match the intent of the program. (37, faculty member with special interest in program development)

The same faculty member expressed the belief that the integration of Educational Psychology, EdGen226, the subject area classes and the Wednesday school experience was working now "better than it ever has before, or in many programs I'm familiar with across the country, continent and beyond" (37).

Other faculty members pointed out that the logical sequence for presentation of the subject area classes sometimes could not be made to fit the EdGen226 strategy for a particular week.

> The sequence of the ________ [subject area] course may fall apart if I stuck to the EdGen sequence. I try for multiple targets, so students might try for motivation and questioning. (91, subject area instructor)

One faculty member claimed that faculty who had taught EdGen226 and who later taught subject area classes tended to integrate these with EdGen skills more than subject area instructors who had never taught EdGen226.

The problem of finishing some subject area classes before field experiences began was mentioned by another faculty member.

> We keep going back to [the subject of] 218's [subject area classes] for the first six weeks in fall. Students don't go out until after that, so there is no opportunity to make any assignments to be integrated with field work. It's just a packaged class with no field component. That's going against one of the principles. (51)

Not mentioned was the fact that the subject area classes are taught in two blocks of four, one in the first six weeks, the other in the second six weeks of the fall semester. Clearly, no integration is possible between the subject area classes taught in the first six weeks and the EdGen226 skills taught in the second six weeks.

There is a lack of integration between subject area classes and EdGen226. The researcher observed this in several cases and the instructors of a number of subject area classes stated quite openly that full integration was not possible. Unlike the situation with the link between micro-teaching and Wednesday classroom teaching, no one appeared unduly perturbed about this discrepancy between rhetoric and practice. If the interpretations of some of the people quoted above are accurate, there may be a gradual move towards greater integration as more faculty members gain "a strong concept of the program" (37). In any event, full integration is unlikely to ever occur, and for reasons also given above, probably never should occur.

Content-Independent Skills

This was an issue which aroused considerable emotion each time the researcher mentioned it. People had strong feelings about the concept of content-independent skills. However, after talking to a large number of students and faculty, it became clear that there were really three separate areas of concern.

First, some faculty members took the phrase content-independent skills to refer to the disagreement amongst faculty members about the ratio of time allotted to subject-area content, compared with time allotted to skill training. One faculty member referred to some secondary programs having mainly content with very little pedagogy. He said:

> I'm not against content, but if we're in the business of teaching teachers, that is our prime target [pedagogy]. (83, faculty member with experience in both high school and elementary programs)

Another faculty member took the opposite line, and referred to the secondary program in quite a different way.

> There are some of us on faculty who do view with concern the heavy emphasis, probably from Oregon where many of our doctorates are from, on process versus content. I'm a fence-sitter, but I'm afraid that in the elementary program, content is given second place, and I'm especially concerned that in the new secondary program, if there's going to be such a thing as three teaching fields, that again expertise in subject areas will suffer. (68,

> faculty member, also with experience in both elementary and high school programs)

Some students shared this concern.

> One thing bothers many students. We dwell so much on skill, but we're forgetting about content. The profs say, "Forget about content. Work on the skills." (12, pre-intern)

Another student saw an inconsistency in messages from university and cooperating teacher.

> We've been told "Don't concern yourself about content" [by faculty]. Maybe the cooperating teacher is pressuring us to push content. It's a dilemma for us. (10, pre-intern, mature age)

A representative of the School Trustees' Association believed that there was "too much time on pedagogy at the expense of academic background" (86). He suggested that this was partly attributable to the demands made by the Association for what he called "broad teachers," those able to teach a wide range of subjects. His perception of the situation was that the Faculty of Education had responded to the Association's demands by stressing pedagogical skills at the expense of an academic focus on a small number of content areas.

This issue seems to be based, not on any misunderstanding, but on a difference in beliefs about teacher training. As such, it may not be easily resolved. Little, if any, research appears to have been done on the best ratio of subject area content to skills training in teacher education courses. Continued empathetic communication and forbearance may be the only reasonable way to behave in the face of this type of disagreement.

The second interpretation of 'content-independent skills' which was found, involved the issue of whether or not a body of teaching skills exists which are useful over a wide range of teaching subjects. At present, the elementary education program is based on the premise that such a set of skills and strategies exists. In EdGen226, about a dozen skills are taught, micro-taught and practised. It is assumed that these skills fit all eight subject areas more or less equally well.

Speaking of the historical preoccupation with how to teach specific subjects and the current Montview rejection of that approach in favor of general teaching skills, one faculty member said:

> I'd say our product, according to principals and superintendents, . . . can go into a classroom and function as teachers. I don't think they're any less qualified to teach in any subject area, but they're certainly more able to work effectively with children. (51, faculty member who has been closely involved with the new program at Montview from the start, and has supervised students throughout its development)

Another senior faculty member sketched his perception of the history of the content-independent skills debate and stated his firm belief that:

> Any content would do as a vehicle for skills and strategy . . . the information [research] was showing that a lot of it was applicable across various subject areas. (42, faculty member who had been closely involved with the new program since its inception)

An opposing position was outlined by several faculty members. Representative of them was the following comment.

> We can never neglect 'how-to' [skills]. I'm only concerned about this generalizing—the idea that these skills can be pulled apart. I'm saying it has to be in the context of the subject. . . . I'm concerned with how to teach Math, how to teach English . . . I believe that there isn't much can be said in general. (46, faculty member who has been on faculty since the inception of the new program, and who was earlier more involved in EdGen courses than he is now)

The two positions above appeared to be irreconcilable without a fundamental change in belief by one or other party. The researcher was therefore considerably surprised when the person espousing content-bound skills stated:

> I'll support the old general methods classes, classroom management, questioning techniques, etc. (46)

When it was pointed out that most of the EdGen226 skills were of this type, he said "That's O.K. I don't know it in detail."

Further analysis of what happens in the Pre-internship Year reveals a pattern which is in no way antithetical to supporters of content-bound skills. Each week, it is possible for subject-area instructors to explore the subject-specific nature of the EdGen226 skill for the week. Thus, if the EdGen skill was 'discussion,' it would be quite possible and proper for the EdLanguage instructor to integrate this skill into Language content very differently from the way the EdMath instructor dealt with the skill.

There appears in this issue to be an unnecessary schism between opposing groups. Better understanding by each group of the other's position may well reduce or even eliminate the areas of disagreement and increase the energy available for pursuing the goals of the faculty.

The third interpretation of content-independent skills is that made by most students. To them, the concept appears to be the justification for the imposition of a very frustrating element in their Second Year cycle. This is the selection by EdGen226 instructors of a recondite topic for micro-teaching sessions, rather than the topic the students will actually teach the following Wednesday. The justification for this is that use of the real Wednesday classroom topic in micro-teaching tended to cause students to focus on content rather than the skill.

> It's so easy to be caught up in content and forget about professional development. (51, faculty member, and EdGen 226 instructor)

> The pedagogical process is relatively content-free in the sense that you can choose almost any content to teach that. (37, faculty member, ex-EdGen226 instructor)

The students argued, however, that if any content can be used, it would be more sensible to use Wednesday's content. They saw the imposed topic as just another unnecessary demand on their time. As one student put it:

> I'm busy enough with things that are important, let alone preparing lessons of no use to me or the class. (72, pre-intern)

Another said:

> What they give me to teach, I'll never use. We've asked for a lesson we can teach in class. (57, pre-intern)

The point seemed to be that instead of allowing students to concentrate on the skill, this approach forced them to spend a lot of unproductive time on unfamiliar content. Their argument seems difficult to refute. In fact, some lab instructors have allowed students to use Wednesday's school topics for micro-teaching. "It's more valuable—way better," said a pre-intern (72).

It will be interesting to watch what happens with regard to future faculty policy on this aspect of micro-teaching. A large majority of students object to what they see as an unnecessary waste of their scarce time. The argument in support of this practice fails to convince them. The issue itself is not central to the success of the program.

The interest lies in observing how the issue will be resolved. The faculty takes pride in the quality of relationships existing between professors and students. Much of what the researcher observed indicated that the pride was justified. It seems entirely possible that this apparently trivial area of concern could prove to be an important test of the quality of the faculty-student relationship.

Micro-teaching—A Modified Judicial Evaluation

Full scale judicial evaluation involves a spokesman for each of the opposing positions, a jury to hear the arguments and a chairman (judge) to provide a summary of the deliberations. In this case, the jury was dispensed with, and the two cases were transcribed from audiotape and submitted to an independent person for comment. This person, a very experienced user of micro-teaching at a different university, did not know, and was not known by, the Montview faculty members who provided the cases for and against micro-teaching. She provided a detailed commentary on the arguments put forward by the proponents of each case, and expressed her willingness to meet them to further discuss the issue of micro-teaching in teacher education institutions.

The entire segment appears below with some editorial alterations for readability, but no other comment.

The Case for Micro-teaching
(Transcript of Micro-teaching Tape)

This is my report to Barrie Dickie on the micro-teaching aspect of the Montview University Faculty of Education Elementary Teacher Education program. We started about ten years ago to try various forms of micro-teaching or peer teaching. In each of these earlier cases and try-outs, the process proved to have some valuable aspects as well as a number of difficulties which were evident right from the start. We looked at studies done at Stanford, the very early original studies, the Sydney micro-skills and the very excellent background information and the analysis of the research carried out to date in their materials, and I visited Stirling University in Scotland where they have a very extensive and expensive micro-teaching program.

When we began to use micro-teaching as a part of our elementary program, it was just that, only one small part of the new elementary program. It is not my purpose to explain or go into great detail of the new elementary program at Montview University, but it must be understood that the micro-teaching or practice labs are an integral part of the total program although that was not the way it was looked upon by some faculty and some students. Those who tried to see it that way made many adaptations and adjustments and also made the point of trying to explain how it fitted into the overall program. The points that need to be made about the elementary program here is that there are, in our mind, four major aspects and these are all developmental in that they progress from more simple to more complex, they are more integrated as you move through the stages and they acknowledge the stages of development in becoming a professional teacher. These aspects are firstly a conceptual development aspect, an ego development aspect in which we try to be concerned about the growth of such things as self esteem, self concept, identity, professional awareness, professional confidence of the students as they move through the program, as well as a skill development aspect in which the micro-teaching or peer teaching played a major role. There was also a fourth part which was a practice aspect in which we tried to be conscious of the synthesizing of the parts into a performance because the purpose of our program is to provide for a performance product for teaching in the classroom.

In studying what was lacking in teacher education, both in our own program and in many other institutions in many countries, it was obvious that performance was a major expectation that was not being met. Thus our program made the application of pedagogical principles important to it and therefore tried to include it. This lack is still a severe criticism of many teacher education programs. We were aware of the fact that some studies raised doubts about the value of micro-teaching, especially the tendency for the skills to wash out once the student was teaching. Also some critics were opposed to any attempts to break teaching down to mechanical skills. As a result of these studies and observation, we did a number of things to make our practice more successful. First the skill aspect as contrasted with many competency based teacher education programs was only one aspect of the four and it was allotted really a very small part of the total time. We did have also [sic], we made it part of the total development, it took place mainly in the Second Year or the Pre-internship Year and the micro-teaching followed upon a session in which the teaching principle was explained and demonstrated. Then it was carried out with feedback in a positive learning climate, not in an evaluative climate. So the micro-teaching was never evaluated by individual sessions or session by session nor really was it evaluated as a whole. It was a necessary part of the program, we tried to encourage it as a practice preparation session. This is one of the drawbacks in the micro-teaching part of the program. The micro-teaching was followed by a practice session in a school and the students were assigned to this classroom in the school one day a week. The purpose was to limit them to teaching two lessons in which the major objective was a practice of the pedagogical principle that had been studied a couple of days before and practised a couple of days before I mean, and thus prepared for, so that it could be applied in the teaching situation. The practice session in the classroom was a regular lesson but the main emphasis was on the teaching principle or as we called it, the target.

We followed a number of basic principles. As much as possible we moved from simple targets to more complex as we moved through the Pre-internship Year. In the early stages this was a continual study by faculty, and many faculty researched the literature and travelled and visited institutions to try to determine what would be a core of so-called basic skills and strategies or basic teaching principles and their application. We also sequenced these targets according to their immediate need in the classroom. So we had two principles of sequencing: that's simple to complex and immediacy of need. We kept the whole process as holistic as possible. We avoided breaking down the skills into very fragmented parts and even though the micro-teaching was short and restricted to the target, it was still taught, used and practised as part of a lesson. In the practice which followed in the school two days later, it was always part of the whole lesson. We tried to make the skills cumulative, that is as one was practised, we tried to maintain that as we moved to the new targets. We have carried out very extensive evaluations of our elementary program in a number of ways and not anywhere as complete as we'd like, but a number of years we especially studied the Pre-internship Year (although we also have studied the Internship which follows it). It's important in this program to realize that the micro-teaching is part of the Pre-internship Year and the practice sessions are in the school, once a week and the two week block at the end of that year, but that this is still only considered to be a fairly fragmented part of the development, and it is not until the Third Year that the student has a sixteen week Practicum in which we expect the synthesis of the number of skills and strategies, along with the pedagogy of individual subjects, along with the stage at which they are in their own development of their own self confidence. Also it is important to note that the whole approach to the micro-teaching followed the same supervisory approach that was practised in the Internship in the year that was following. In other words, there was a conference part to the teaching, the target was described and the data were collected according to the target which the student was practising, and this approach continued on into the supervision although the targets became much more molar and much more long term in nature. The evaluation results in general have shown a number of things to us, but we have had a fairly low percentage of students who favored the micro-teaching. It's been running between 40-60%. This has been fairly consistent over a number of years. The results have shown that this has greatly depended on how the micro-teaching was carried out. In breaking it down it's obvious that that was a major factor. Over the years we have had much improvement but this is still probably the least liked part of the program.

We've had a small number of faculty who've made little attempt to understand the process and have been negative towards it and they have conveyed this to the students with whom they have been working. Then we've had a number of faculty who have been in favor but not sure how to carry it out, therefore there has been a very real learning experience for faculty. I could go into the kind of preparation we've done recently to try to overcome the number of difficulties we've had. The results have been startling, even with as few as eight or nine practice sessions per semester. We have had positive skill development, improved conceptual development and certainly a vastly improved self concept of those people who have continued through the program. The micro-teaching has provided a fairly low level screen, but has helped us in the screening process in continually providing feedback to the students as to how their growth and development is taking place. For instance, just recently, the team made recommendations to have a failure for one student in a section and although it was not based on the micro-teaching, the micro-teaching report did confirm that this student was having a certain kind of difficulty. One of the English Education faculty members who was quite particular about the lack of achievement in the oral English of our students admitted that there was a vast improvement in oral English ability following this practice year. (He was opposed to the program.) We have also had very positive reaction from teachers, principals, superintendents as the students move into the Internship, indicating how well prepared they are, indicating that they have obtained a degree of self confidence and that they do have some knowledge as well as skills that they can put together in a more real teaching situation.

We have some other programs with which to compare it. Our secondary program up until recently had no micro-teaching or practice sessions and the comparison was obvious—the number of complaints we got about the people not being ready and not having skills at any level were abundant and this has been obvious to a person such as myself who has visited many student interns. We could go on to describe in much greater detail, but the evidence for even the skeptical faculty is obvious and accepted and has made a real difference to our program.

Now, it is difficult to isolate the micro-teaching as to its importance within the Pre-internship Year, but last year when I was away the micro-teaching was reduced and not carried out to a great extent. Following that year the faculty voted to reincorporate it as an essential part of the Pre-internship Year (I was not there). I've supervised numerous students through the years in this program and in all phases of the program and this year I supervised students who had gone through without any micro-teaching in their Pre-internship Year. It was patently obvious that they had not practised certain skills—they had been in the classroom but they had not practised certain skills, that they were not as aware even of how to put them into effect and although they had many good qualities and the program was successful, the lack of skills was obvious, even with topnotch students. Also we've been involved in three other programs. In these three, two had used skill development practices and one didn't. We've had a most fortunate experience in that we can note the differences and some of us have been involved in all these programs and the difference in possession and lacking these skills was very evident among programs, and the students did not really differ. They differed from the regular students in some ways but they did not differ really among themselves. With all of these examples, it had become really just a necessity to carry on but improve this aspect.

The liking of it of course is easy to explain and it's not surprising whatsoever. The maybe oversimplified analogy is the one of anybody in a highly-skilled activity such as music or sports. Of course although the students realize that practice is necessary and will spend many hours at it, when asked to rate practice at dribbling or shooting when compared to the real basketball game, there is no comparison whatsoever in their degree of likeness, and the same thing applies to many many other activities. I think you can stretch that analogy a bit too far at times, but I think that aspect is very true. This year though, we have revised the program—the program manager has revised the program. Number one, she has changed the term to labs which is a more acceptable university term and she's employed graduate people as lab instructors so that we could have a fairly consistent group of people who accepted this position because they wished to work in this particular job. We've also provided materials that would give the student micro-teacher content with which to work, and therefore avoid a lot of unnecessary preparation in the content area. The results have confirmed that the change of plans have been successful in that a larger percentage of the students have indicated that they are in favor or have liked the lab practice sessions. I think some of the major aspects of the micro-teaching is that number one, it's purpose is strictly practice although its purpose is probably mainly practice. It has a major secondary purpose which is increasing understanding and as we get to more complex teaching strategies, as for instance, teaching of concepts and teaching of skills, and inquiry teaching, some aspects of information processing, students find that of course their understanding increases as they make some fairly coordinated and some discoordinated and fairly disjointed attempts at practising these teaching strategies. But afterwards they come out with a better understanding of what it means and this has happened constantly. But the major purpose is practice and therefore we have to explain to the students that their criticism which of course is that it's not real and they therefore don't practise the real thing is of course the very point. We do not practise in the real situation—we practise in an artificial situation with as many of the variables reduced as possible so that one can make very rough first attempts at applying the particular pedagogical principle in a teaching lesson. Since teaching is to a great extent the interaction between the teacher and the student we certainly make no bones that that is the kind of thing that is being practised here. Therefore, it is very restricted first steps that the teacher must take in carrying out a certain kind of teaching approach, and so that they will be able to do this, we need to have them go through it and try to understand it and work through it and have some kind of explanation related to their own background as to what this means and how this works. So we control the variables and some activities such as some of the classroom management activities which are very difficult to practise. Therefore those do not turn out to be the best topics or targets, but some of them can be initially started. As a matter of fact you can correct students who are not carrying out properly certain practices such as overlapping, through a micro-teaching session, and it is one of the best places to practise some of those ideas.

At this stage we are now getting reports from students that one of the difficulties they're having as they get into more complicated teaching processes is that they need more practice. I've had students offer this strongly, and we just don't have the time in the program to provide for the amount of practice that some of them would like. Now they don't particularly enjoy a lot of this practice in certain ways, but they do realize when they have a look at the classroom that they can't move into a real live buzzing, humming twenty five student classroom and start to practise certain kinds of pedagogical principles. And consequently most of our evidence shows that most of those kinds of skills and strategies rarely if ever get put into practice. On the other hand we're still not sure how much practice is necessary before they do wash out or before they become internalized and integrated and become a more automatic part of the way the teacher operates. And that the teacher can think about how and when and why she wishes to use these particular ideas.

To conclude in this, we are now reaching a stage of actually for some of us quite innovative, and we think to some extent possibly reaching new heights in our work in trying to get at what teaching is, and through some stimulated recall following micro-teaching, we are now getting students who are able to think teaching at the same time as they are thinking what they are teaching. So being able to have students think both about how and what, seems to be the key to it all. We are now finding that we are able to get that second thought level but we can't get it in the classroom unless we've first got it in the very confined and restricted situation. Then as we achieve it with faculty advisors, who are following along with the student and are able to pick out subtle differences that are taking place, we can then build on those other higher teacher thought levels as I'm calling them, and have the student think about what they're doing as well as what they're teaching. So we're very enthusiastic about where this kind of session will lead. But the main emphasis is on practice and increased understanding, not the realism of the classroom. Fortunately on our program it comes only a few days afterwards, so we never leave a person really in an experience that is just an isolated very artificial experience. We always move from that into a much more realistic situation. Now we have a number of questions that we need to study in greater detail. How many practice sessions do you need before you can make the most of the real classroom? What are the best kinds of real classrooms? What are the best kinds of content in which to practise and so forth? We do have a number of guidelines that have been worked out by some of us and our students, in that we now find that adjusting very carefully the content and making it vary in a certain way so that a person can be giving attention to the teacher thought that's necessary does help considerably, but we're really at a very rough and largely unscientific stage in that. I should mention also that we have made other moves. For instance we have now a new middle years program, and in there we are making adaptations of our practice sessions to meet the needs of those people teaching at that level. We are moving to a new high school secondary program and we're incorporating various kinds of practice into those sessions. We are planning next year to start a new sub-part of the elementary program for early childhood, and also in that area we will maybe be making adaptations that will fit our practice sessions to better help the students who are working at the early childhood level.

Micro-teaching: A Second Look
(Transcript of Micro-teaching Tape)

Micro-teaching has been an integral part of many teacher education programs for almost twenty years. During the early years of micro-teaching the research literature focussed on the main objectives and advantages of the technique. With the passage of time it has become necessary to review not only the overall worth of the technique, but to identify the problems and limitations which have gradually come to light over the years. The purpose of this discussion is to identify some of the features of micro-teaching which have presented problems, and to suggest some corrective measures. I have set forth some of the underlying weaknesses of micro-teaching as I have been able to interpret them from statements in the literature, from observation, and from discussions with both advocates of micro-teaching and those not so fully convinced of its worth. First of all, some of the minor limitations of micro-teaching.

Micro-teaching sessions require a larger percentage of time than is normally spent in regular courses. Consequently, it is not unusual to find that some faculty members are assigned to micro-teaching even though they lack the necessary preparation and communication skills. Other faculty members may be required to conduct micro-teaching sessions even though they lack both the expertise and the interest. In order to overcome some of these problems, a large number of extra sessional instructors, for example, former teachers and graduate students, are hired each year to assist with this aspect of the program. Students participating in micro-teaching find that the sessions require several extra hours of involvement. In addition to attending the lecture which focusses on a particular skill, each student is required to prepare a micro-lesson to incorporate the skill in the practice session. Although the number of students in each practice session is kept small, five to six in number, at least an hour to an hour-and-a-half is required to allow each student to present his lesson and to be evaluated. According to Ill (1980) students reported that they considered micro-teaching far too time-consuming when compared to its value in the classroom. Most of the proponents of micro-teaching recommend the use of video-tape machines. This equipment is very expensive and consequently there are not enough machines to go around. Faced with these problems, it has become necessary to adapt the micro-teaching sessions to suit the circumstances. Then there is the additional problem of space. There are not enough rooms for video-tape instruction. Nevertheless, as serious as these limitations are, with more time and more space and more resources, faculty and budget, these problems of micro-teaching could be overcome. A more serious limitation of micro-teaching lies inherent in the method itself.

Now I would like to discuss the major limitations of micro-teaching. I have identified eight important, though necessarily abridged, limitations of micro-teaching. They are as follows:

1. The theoretical base.
2. The new goals for teacher education.
3. The data-collecting procedures.
4. The effect on learning.
5. The emphasis on skills over content.
6. Accommodating individual differences of students.
7. Reliance on the lecture method.
8. The preparation of primary teachers.

First of all, the theoretical base. The roots of micro-teaching are grounded in the behavior modification theory, which claims that a person's behavior can be changed by giving him some kind of reward or positive reinforcement when he behaves in the desired manner. The assumption is that the praising or rewarding of the trainee will increase his use of the behavior in the future. Originally, the technique of micro-teaching was designed to improve the skills of personnel in the militia. For training army personnel, the method was most successful. The trainee received immediate feedback which permitted him to see the discrepancies between his performance and his conscious intentions, thus allowing him to judge the amount and kind of change required for him to improve his technique. It was believed that these skills could be clearly applied to the performance of teaching. Consequently, significant aspects of teaching might then be refined with a degree of precision not previously experienced in teacher education. This particular view of teaching assumes that teaching is an activity that can be reduced to a set of specific skills, or instructional techniques, and that mastery of these skills results in effective teaching. The skills identified for micro-teaching at Stanford University have been incorporated into many teacher education programs. Generally, the set of skills includes the following thirteen items: stimulus variation, set induction, closure, silence and non-verbal cues, reinforcement of student participation, probing questions, higher order questioning, asking divergent questions, recognizing attending behavior, using examples and illustrations, lecturing, using planned repetition, and finally, asking questions fluently. The very nature of this set of skills seems to lock micro-teaching into its behavioristic base. New terminology accompanied the advent of micro-teaching. In the literature the student teacher was referred to as the trainee, and teacher education became known as teacher training. A crucial question to be raised is this: does behavior modification provide an adequate base for so vital a component of teacher education?

The second limitation: the new goals of teacher education. The advent of micro-teaching challenged the traditional goals of teacher education. The move to micro-teaching was more than finding an effective means to attain the same goals. It was a shift to a different conception of what is involved in professional teaching, and therefore included new ways of preparing students for teaching through the technical skills approach. It was believed that mastery of a basic set of technical skills would enable a teacher to teach any subject to any student in any circumstances.

The third limitation: the data-collecting procedures. Data-collection procedures of micro-teaching posed important limitations. Most of the data-collection systems quoted teacher behavior in terms of the kind of behavior rather than by the quality of the behavior. For example, a poorly-phrased higher-order question would be scored in the same way as a clearly-phrased question. Similarly, a probing question used at an appropriate moment would receive the same kind of score as a probing question used needlessly or even absurdly. The degree of behavior change was measured by the frequency of use of the skill, rather than by the appropriateness of its use. In other words, it was that the skill was being used, and not how it was being used.

The fourth limitation: the effect of the technical skills on learning. Another major limitation is the assumption that the use of the technical skills approach results in effective learning on the part of the students in the classroom. A review of the literature provided little evidence to show that the use of the technical skills produces more effective learning. More research needs to be done in teacher learning process before we claim that micro-teaching produces more effective learning. Research needs to question how teachers influence learners, and vice versa, before we can understand the process by which teaching influences students' learning. The mental life of both teachers and students in the classroom are the critical areas to be studied.

The fifth limitation: the emphasis of skills over content. An additional controversial assumption underlying micro-teaching revolves about developing skills apart from a curriculum context. On the one hand, proponents of micro-teaching view teaching as perfecting a system of skills. Consequently, these skills are taught in isolation from context. On the other hand, others hold the view that skills are most effectively taught within the context of curriculum. This context provides meaning and purpose for the use of the particular skill.

The sixth limitation: accommodating individual differences of the students. The skills approach pays little attention to individual differences among the student teachers themselves. Learning styles, previous professional experience and personality traits are seldom taken into account. It is assumed that all students coming into teacher education have the same needs and that the same package of technical skills is what all these students need to make teachers out of them. Even the differences between what elementary and secondary teachers require in their preparation is not always considered.

The seventh limitation: reliance on the lecture method. The set of micro-teaching skills relies heavily on the lecture method of teaching, which is more commonly used with older students. Descriptions of the skills, such as lecturing, keeping students attending to the task, the teacher should be utilizing the front and the back of the space, imply that the skills were designed for the lecture method with the older student in mind.

The eighth limitation: the preparation of primary teachers. With the heavy emphasis on the lecture method in micro-teaching, primary teachers are not being equipped with the kinds of skills that are appropriate for teaching younger children. The younger the pupils, the more dependent they are on physical and sensorial experiences for their learning. The type of program that is required for younger children provides the kind of learning experiences that will facilitate cognitive growth and development through interaction with the environment. This deficiency in a teacher education program is viewed as a serious limitation, since about 25% of our teachers will be employed as primary teachers, that is, kindergarten through Grade 3.

And finally, some suggestions for modifying micro-teaching. From time to time, attempts have been made to modify the micro-teaching process. I would like to suggest four ways this can be done:

First, a practicum based on a holistic approach to teaching. Second, a practicum with fewer micro-teaching sessions. Third, a practicum to develop skills necessitated by the context of curriculum. Fourth a practicum appropriate for primary teachers.

First, the holistic approach is illustrated by the Practicum at Montview University. It includes three main components:

1. Practice. The students need practice in preparing and presenting a lesson.

2. After presenting a lesson, the student needs information about the general quality of his lesson, and on the delivery of it. He needs to know what is good about it, and how he might improve the areas of weakness.

3. Alternatives. In light of the assessment from his peers and his instructor, the student needs to consider alternatives and other methods or approaches which would be more appropriate. The student is expected to incorporate these suggestions into his next practice session. It is also intended that the suggestions will be reflected in the practice teaching sessions of the other members of the group where appropriate.

The second modification of micro-teaching: a reduction in the number of micro-teaching sessions. Only three on-campus sessions were scheduled for students at Montview University in the fall of 1981 before they were assigned to a classroom. These sessions included simple lesson planning, making decisions, and setting objectives. The main purpose of these sessions was to get students up on their feet to make a presentation before a small group. Once the students were assigned to classrooms, one day per week, the students took the skills that were presented in the general education lecture and tried them out in the school.

The third modification of micro-teaching: developing skills necessitated by curriculum. When the skills that are needed to teach a lesson from a particular area of curriculum have been decided upon, the students are given an opportunity to practise the lesson before going to the classroom. Evaluation and feedback by the instructor and other members of the group permit the student to make changes that are considered necessary. The advantage of this type of practicum is that skills are selected to suit the lesson being taught. Furthermore, student teachers are encouraged to view the selection of appropriate skills and techniques as a life-long process in the development of their teaching styles.

The fourth modification of micro-teaching: a practicum for primary teachers. The purpose of this practicum would be to prepare teachers for working in the type of educational environment that is appropriate for young children. It is known that younger children require learning experiences that facilitate cognitive growth and development through interaction with the environment. An important aspect of this preparation would be to provide student teachers with the opportunity of carrying out their practicum in a classroom where the kinds of learning experiences are consistent with what is known about how young children learn best. The classroom teacher would assign the student a lesson or teaching activity. An example of this might be to read a story to a group of children. Preparation would include the selection of the story itself, and a discussion of the skills needed to read the story. The student would prepare to read the story to his peers and instructor. Evaluation by the group and the instructor would provide an opportunity for improvement. The next step would be for the student to read the story in the classroom. Feedback would be provided by the classroom teacher. Upon completion of the practicum, the student would have had the opportunity to include a wide range of teaching experiences requiring a variety of skills, methods and techniques. Another important advantage of this type of practicum is that the skills would be integrated into the teaching activity itself. The selection of the skills and the integration of the skills would occur in a natural manner.

In conclusion, my intent is not to claim that practice sessions are not important, but my purpose is to suggest some ways by which improvements can be made. It is fair to say that research has not yet found the best method of preparing teachers, but we do know that effective teaching is a provocative combination of philosophy, psychological concepts, and pedagogical techniques. A more open and systematic interchange of ideas for the practicum of teacher education programs might indeed enable us to design one of the most imaginative and worthwhile programs in teacher education. Its shape and use can be as varied as the imagination of those who plan it. As Goethe has said, "We must always change, renew and rejuvenate ourselves, otherwise we harden."

Micro-teaching: A Reaction to Two Critiques

by Dr. F. MacCannell

I had a problem with both papers in that they did not give me a clear idea as to the content of those micro-teaching sessions. The first paper gives us a rundown in a calendar way of what is done on different days but it does not tell us who the pupils are. I am assuming he means fellow students or peers in the pre-service class. He does not say how many are in the groups, nor who they are observed by, though it is stated that feedback is given. We don't know if observation is done during the teaching or if feedback is given as a result of viewing a video-tape. There is a lot of information which I needed, so some of the things I say, I may not have enough information really to be commenting wisely about. All of the above things are factors in human-interaction processing. From the second paper I gathered that the Stanford model was being followed rather closely. In the first paper, he says they had modified this model to meet their needs. I don't know to what extent they are using the behavioristic model and this fact would make a lot of difference to the kind of comment I will make. With all this as a view of my imperfect understanding of the program under discussion, I will discuss first one paper and then the other in the light of my experience across a number of years with micro-teaching.

The First Paper

The first paper begins with a statement of the different sources of information sought before embarking upon their program and that adaptations and adjustments were made. (I would think that adaptations and adjustments would always be necessary not only in adopting another program but in advancing the design of one's own program.) Their program design was based on developmental needs, progressed from simple to complex, became more integrated as it progressed, and included a practice aspect. We however do not know what kinds of things were being practiced.

The first paper indicates that a great deal of effort was expended to make the program successful. It took place in the second year. There was a session with the skill aspect that they were working on. They were given feedback and then they had practice with this skill within a very short time in a school situation. So I'm assuming that they didn't use real children at their first go, but were probably using peers. I hope that's fair. The paper states, "They were limited in teaching two lessons in which the major objective was the practice of the pedagogical principles that had been studied and practised a couple of days before." I have difficulty with the notion that we'll prepare something worthwhile to teach to children, but have as a primary focus some specific behavior that is going to be practiced on, really to the exclusion of perhaps that major goal: the children's learning. In that sense I would agree with anyone who says that micro-teaching is artificial. I can see that as being a real problem, and in my own work I hope I've gotten around that. I can see in the second critique, that this might be a rather valid point that is being made.

Moving on in the first paper, the target is discussed as a part of the conference focus. The target had been described, and the data collected according to the target skill which the student was practising. This goes back to the point I was just making. When we are making a lesson in which children are to learn some particular thing, how well are we going to contrive a target when we do not know what is going to be needed. I liken it to being out on an archery field and there are targets all set up. But if our purpose for being out on the archery field is to gather daisies or to run foot races, it may be that the target is only going to be in the way of accomplishing of the objective, the collecting daisies or the foot race. So I can see that as being one of the things that would be interfering a lot with people's appreciation of micro-teaching.

He states "we have a fairly low percentage of students who favor micro-teaching . . . but it did depend on how the micro-teaching was carried out . . . but it was still probably the least liked part of the program." I can see there might be reasons. I'm quite sympathetic with his next statement about some of the faculty being negative toward it and then having this conveyed to the students with whom they are working. Truly if your faculty is not into this, it will cause much difficulty. It may be reaction to the behavioristic model they are using rather than anything to do with the practice/feedback aspect. I came into micro-teaching looking at the Stanford model, and I felt negative then too.

Later in the paper the observation is made that students have a degree of self confidence and do have some knowledge; and, yes, that would be expected to result to some degree. Students who hadn't had the micro-teaching in their pre-internship year were compared and for them, "it was patently obvious that they had not practised certain skills, that they had been in the classroom but had not practised certain skills, that they were not as aware even of how to put them into effect, and although they had many good qualities, and the program was successful, the lack of skills was obvious." We may need to think about what it is that micro-teaching may accomplish even in this atomized way. It may provide the students with the language about their own professional behavior so that they are able to identify certain aspects and reflect on those aspects more effectively. So the involvement in micro-teaching may enhance the acquisition of vocabulary about teaching behavior that facilitates thinking about it. They may be better able to develop concepts about teaching behavior and have more precision in their analysis of it.

Later the change of name for micro-teaching is discussed. I think that using the "more acceptable term," labs might be an excellent idea. (I'll talk about naming it something else later on.) He goes on to say that people working in the lab wanted to work in that particular job. Of course, self-selection is the larger part of the battle. It gets around the problem of those who are so uncommitted or negative about the process.

The main purpose of micro-teaching according to the first paper is practice and "therefore we have to explain to students that their criticism, which is of course that it's not real, and therefore they don't practise the real thing" is something that must be confronted. In my opinion students must be prepared well ahead of time and understand that what they are examining is their own professional behavior. Study of children is not to be the outcome of that first encounter with teaching in a micro-teaching situation. That first practice is to see how we use ourselves as instruments to facilitate a teaching/learning interaction, which includes the way we use questioning, our non-verbal behavior, eye contact, those aspects of the interpersonal process that influence the interaction between the teacher and learners. We need to be looking at our professional selves. This is why videotaped micro-teaching is so efficient. We actually see that we are doing such things as hiding behind a sheaf of lesson plans rather than listening to the pupil, so that we can see our frowns and less inviting behaviors and the effect these have on student participation. Videotaping is particularly effective for students with distracting behaviors, or repetitive or monotonous responses. I would also like to stress that practice without feedback may not yield satisfactory return for the time expended.

In the first paper the author discusses areas in which educators have little definitive knowledge such as how much practice is necessary before skills become internalized and integrated. In a certain sense, I wondered how behavioristic this statement was meant to be. It might not have carried that implication, but on the other hand, perhaps it does. I would not want my teachers so "internalized" that they weren't thoughtful about the kind of things they choose to do in the interpersonal process of teaching. That would make me very nervous. It is true that soldiers are expected to obey instantly. This behavioristic model came out of the military. I don't see teaching children in that way. I don't want to produce teachers who are automatons. I want them thoughtful about their actions. That statement (I am not sure I am critiquing fairly or not), but there is a possibility that it may be more behavioristic than I'd be comfortable with.

Responding frightens me as a consistent teacher behavior. In the mechanical skills, yes. I should like to have some kind of handwriting skills perfected in that way, but as we think about thinking skills, and analysis, and a flexibility in thinking of alternatives, all of those kinds of thoughtful processes, we might handle somewhat differently. Here we need to encourage and accept children's ideas in ways that would be more flexible and less stimulus-response on the part of the teacher's activity. One of the things that I'm really at odds with in all of this is the idea that we consistently reward children's answers rather than an honest acceptance of the responding. So we aren't always saying "that's right," or "good" but on the other hand we are really hearing what the child says, and giving encouragement for the child to explore those ideas further, whether we do it as a verbal response or as eye contact that says, "That's a different idea. Tell us more," or "Why do you feel this way?" or "How else might this happen?" Follow-up questions help the child become more thoughtful about his ideas (where praise may cut off the process since what has been offered is considered satisfactory by that significant other, the teacher). Teacher approval is an extrinsic reward that seems to me to not be as ethical as the encouragement of the child's thought without the stamp of our approval, allowing that thought to be the child's intrinsic effort and thus having its own validity in the development of that child.

The Second Paper

The author of the second paper states that the purpose of the paper is to identify some of the features that have presented problems and suggest some corrective measures. I think that this has been done quite fairly. She states that the reactions stated have come from the literature, from observations, discussions, advocates of micro-teaching and those not so fully convinced. Under the topic of minor limitations, she talks about the time that is required in micro-teaching and it does require time. (However, I have worked out ways that I can put 36 students through about 20 minute rounds with two students teaching to their groups in each round in about 1½ hours. This does not mean that I get to observe each person in depth. Instead we go into the peer-pupils' critique of each round of teaching.) She is quite right when she talks about time as a problem with many arrangements and particularly if it means viewing video-tapes. That is very time-consuming. (In another program I was in we did not watch the students in the actual teaching, but were in another lab at playback machines. As soon as the student finished teaching the round, he brought us the cassette, and then we immediately critiqued it while the rest of the group continued with the teaching and filming. After feedback, the student returned to the group and the next peer-teacher brought in that tape. With this, it was not only time intensive, but the intensity of the experience on the feedback person was exhausting.) Yes, it's true, it does take much time; it takes expertise; and it takes faculty interest in it. I've worked in some situations where some instructors were not committed to this form of teacher preparation. In these situations, the micro-teaching disintegrated into silly sessions—not really what we need. Over all, I believe the benefits of micro-teaching can outweigh the factor of time expenditure.

Quoting again from the paper on the subject of time, "although the number of students in each practice session is kept small, five to six in number, at least an hour to 1½ hours is required to allow each student to present his lesson and to be evaluated." I have not worked that way and haven't found it necessary to use so much time.

If my students are teaching in pairs with twenty minutes to work inside of, each one can share the teaching responsibility and we can see a great deal of teaching behavior in that time. We may not see the complete lesson start to finish, but the plan reveals the direction which is intended. We can observe their teaching stance, their use of language and nonverbal communication, the phrasing of questions, the way they invite pupil responsiveness, the way they handle situations as they move from idea to idea. For instance, one of the ways in which students are less than effective results from neglecting to follow-in on pupil response. A pupil makes a two or three word response, and it's fraught with impact in terms of the pupil's need for developing the idea, and the student ignores the answer. They either go on to the next question, which is their worst habit, or they simply ask some other pupil to respond. There is little assistance for the pupil to develop ideas. Students have to learn to listen and to encourage with such statements as, "Tell us more about that," or "Why do you think that is possible?" or "I'm not sure we all understand. Help us see what you mean." In twenty minutes there is a great deal that can be observed to provide the basis for pertinent and useful feedback.

The next problem considered is that of space. That is certainly a very real consideration and it is rarely that the conditions are even adequate. You simply have to work around this limitation if you value the micro-teaching experience. I often put 36 students in six groups to teach at one time, and it gets very noisy. I tell the students well in advance that the noise will cause them much frustration, ask them to be as considerate as possible of other groups who may not be using audio materials, dramatic activities or other obtrusive activities. They know in advance that six groups will be presenting simultaneously. Not all will draw a position at a blackboard. They are all to bring chart paper and felt pens in lieu of blackboard. They get some teaching experience this way. Some real classrooms have more adverse situations, so it won't hurt them to experience having to concentrate under a bit of handicap.

The next criticism that the paper points out is "a more serious limitation of micro-teaching lies inherent in the method itself." Eight limitations are listed. The first one she mentions is the theoretical base. I would agree if this were the only model that could be used. But does it follow that it has to be the behavioral model? I say no, and I do not use the behavioral model. (I agree that if the roots of micro-teaching are grounded in the behavior modification theory then I would be concerned about the outcome of this particular method.) The skills she says,

> identified for micro-teaching at Stanford University have been incorporated in many teacher education programs. Generally the set of skills includes the following 13 items: stimulus variation, set induction, closure, silence and non-verbal cues, reinforcement of student participation, probing questions, higher-order questioning, divergent questions, recognizing attending behavior,

> and so on. The very nature of this set of skills seems to lock micro-teaching into its behavioristic base. The new terminology accompanied the advent of micro-teaching and in the literature the student teacher was referred to as the trainee, teacher education became teacher training.

I too, object to the term, teacher training. I train my cat to ring a bell on the ceiling by shaping his behavior so that he leaps up on his scratching post, bats at a powder puff on a string that rings the bell on the ceiling. That's operant conditioning, and it's training, and yes the term has some unpleasant connotations. I hope we are educating teachers. I quite agree with what is being stated in this critique. It is probably one of the most telling blows if one limits micro-teaching to just this model.

The second limitation listed is the shift to a conception of professional teaching as technical skills where it was believed that mastery of a basic set of these skills would enable a teacher to teach any subject to any class in any circumstance. Well, if we don't buy the package, this doesn't apply. I'm not at all sure that this is all there is to educating children. I wouldn't want it to be even a minimal requirement. So the criticism is valid only as long as we are accepting micro-teaching and technical skills perfection as synonomous.

The third limitation cited (and I think this is critiqued well) is "that the degree of behavior change was measured by the frequency of the use of the skill, rather than the appropriateness of the use." How apt! That is a beautiful criticism. It is absurd to assume that this evaluating technique measures the effectiveness of a teacher's training. How silly it would be for one to constantly be doing whatever the mechanical focus of a lesson was to the exclusion of intelligent behavior in responding. We're human beings.

The fourth limitation is the effect of technical skills on learning, and I quote, "another major limitation is the assumption that the use of the technical skills approach results in effective learning on the part of the student." Many of these points are bound up in the same thing, the emphasis of skills over content. The paper states, "The mental life of both teachers and students in the classroom are both critical areas to be studied." Of course! It is the isolation from the context, she is speaking about. She continues, and this point is so important, "This context provides meaning and purpose for the use of the particular skill." This is the reason why I had to modify the approach taken in the micro-teaching that I do, because it is in the context of the curriculum that they are teaching rather than focussing on a particular kind of teaching skill or behavior.

INTERVIEWER: Would you go for context-free skills at all?

I have been so desperate upon occasion that I have suggested the student practise "school-teacher looks" to give a child who is deliberately misbehaving, to try-out looks that communicate your disapproval of a behavior without having to speak to the child. That is a terribly isolated instance but when students are too shy to look at children in disapproval of behavior, you may have to talk to them about certain techniques that are context-free for the moment. Yes, sometimes it is necessary to tell them to smile at children as they come in the door rather than showing a perpetually glum countenance. That's context-free. We do use behavior modification in certain circumstances, but I wouldn't want it to be a primary focus in control and discipline or in approach to teaching.

Another point in the critique was that "learning styles, previous experience and personality traits are seldom taken into account." I don't think this has to be so if one modifies the micro-teaching format.

The seventh limitation is reliance on the lecture method. "The set of micro-teaching skills relies heavily on the lecture method of teaching." Now that is so if one uses the Stanford model as it is prescribed. I don't use this model at all. In my work, I do a participation/observation with my students, in which I demonstrate the particular pattern of instruction using them as pupils in the interaction. This demonstration is to illustrate a particular curriculum method suited to Directed Reading, Content Area Reading, Language Arts presentation or whatever. After the demonstration, the class analyzes the procedures, interaction process, necessary planning and preparation, the type of thinking/reading/language skills being developed. We look at how this differs from some other kind of presentation or methodology, how well the selected vehicle for the curriculum worked etc., then the students are given guided practice in planning for a similar presentation. For the micro-teaching work students are placed in pairs (this helps them language the teaching moves that the methodology requires). They plan a presentation for their micro-teaching group of six to eight students in which two will teach for each round and on the micro-teaching day they teach through these plans for a definite period of time set in advance. Each round is followed by peer critiques of the lesson just presented. We discuss the behaviors which encouraged pupil participation, encouraged or developed pupil ideas, evoked questions from the pupils, evoked the pupils' ability to critique their own ideas, to evaluate their data, or to make predictions. Mainly we focus on intelligent questioning because it's such a powerful vehicle. Over all, if I see students falling down on questioning, we talk about it. What question stems might have been more effective? What nonverbal behaviors might have encouraged more participation? If I see there are many "yes/no" questions, I may suggest that asking such questions are less than productive of languaging thought. "Do," "Was," "Have" beginnings have as logical answers a "yes" or a "no." More productive questions such as, "What do you suppose might . . ." in which the wording invites multiple answers, differing ideas, and an expectation of more than one "right" answer. You can evoke multiple answers by wording your questions intelligently. That's not behavioristic. It's tailoring a piece of teaching interaction to meet the objectives of a certain kind of learning that is in process.

Why not grant that our teachers are intelligent young people (some of them may disappoint us occasionally, but in the main they are intelligent young people) and they are fully capable, once they see what their objectives are, of going ahead and thinking on their feet. That is what I want the micro-teaching to do for them: to prepare them to think on their feet, be flexible, to be able to meet the demands of their objectives in terms of learner needs—and it can be done.

The paper brings up the problem of the younger pupils, "the younger the pupils, the more dependent they are on physical and sensorial experiences for their learning." I totally agree and whether my students are designing for the primary grades or middle grades, they have to design their material so that it is manipulative, or there is physical or dramatic activity, or schematic material to give the work reality for these children. This is incorporated in their lesson sequence, tried out in the micro-teaching, and critiqued at the end of their presentation by the peer-pupils who were put through the experience. The point made in the paper, that "this deficiency in a teacher education program is viewed as a serious limitation" is pertinent only so long as one is held to the Stanford materials. It does not have to be confined to these materials or content, or methods. I do not.

Suggestions were made in the paper for modifying the micro-teaching experience. She advises a practicum based on holistic approaches to teaching. That is what the sequence outlined earlier does for my students. They take a certain kind of methodology such as the Directed Reading-Thinking Activity as outlined by Russell Stauffer and design a lesson for children to evoke their thinking, their ability to predict, and to evaluate those predictions, to set their own purposes for reading. They take that model, design instruction and present it in a micro-teaching, and if they are fortunate they have an opportunity to present this work revised after the micro-teaching test run, to children in a classroom.

Another suggestion is a practicum with fewer micro-teaching sessions. Yes, I would say instead of those 12 or 14 sessions on mechanical skills, we can put them through a few instructional models and get at individually what each student seems to be doing which enhances the teaching or militates against the quality in the teaching. They won't all have the same problems or the same teaching styles. I've had students who ask the good open-ended question, but failed consistently to follow up on children's partial answers, and there are others who want to stay at the stage of asking yes/no questions most of the term. It is difficult to bring some of them from the social mode into an instructional mode of questioning. It's all right to say to a friend, "Do you . . .?" or "Have you . . .?" The friend will respond appropriately to the social situation and the question context and is no longer at a literal stage of response. But if you are evoking language and thought from young children, the questions need to be phrased in an instructional mode which requires language as thoughtful activity, such as "How might . . .?" or "Why do you suppose . . .?" It is difficult for some students to make this shift. They seem to feel they are intruding or impolite.

The paper suggests a practicum (in micro-teaching?) appropriate for primary teachers. Yes, my micro-teaching accompanies the curriculum and instruction courses I teach in Reading or Language Arts. It is never isolated. Another related suggestion is the taking of an holistic approach and adds, "After presenting, they need information about the quality of it and their delivery of it, what's good about it and how to improve it." I agree and to go further, I think it is more important to have them know what's good about the teaching than what needs improvement. What they have done well already, they can repeat, that behavior is in their repertoire. The telling them that the behavior is effective is not so much for the praise aspect to encourage their self image (although that is a part of it, and we want them to feel good about themselves). The purpose is to say to them, "You do this well. Please continue with this activity or these ideas because they are working for you. They are intelligent teaching behavior. Please use them. Don't abandon them. Know what it is that you do that is effective teaching." Students often don't know. They need to be told. I do tell them. After all, what are we being paid for? Feedback is not a psychological or therapeutic session, where we attempt to dredge all this out of the student. We haven't that kind of time nor are we prepared to work in this way. We are people who supposedly do know what is effective in instructing children and we ought to lend our expertise boldly in letting students know what they do well. On the other hand we need to help them when they are doing something which does not facilitate children's learning. If we have a transcription of their lesson, we can say, "Look at this lesson, see how often children merely said yes, and then you went on to something else. You were defeated by those yesses and noes or whatever. Don't let this happen to you. Ask your pupils why, what do you think, how. Assist children in developing their language and thought." I don't want to give feedback on too many areas of weakness but rather one thing at a time to work on, or perhaps two if they're good and capable. Let them see their own progress in a specific area or two.

The paper suggests alternatives, "in the light of the assessment from his peers and his instructor, the student needs to consider alternatives and other methods or approaches which would be more appropriate." So true! For example, you can't very well use a Directed Reading-Thinking method if your students have already read the story. There are no predictions to be made. So if the story has been read, or they have seen the movie, then we need to select some other model for working with this particular story, the DR-TA won't work. Yes, students need to know what the alternatives are, what might be more effective, and stay flexible in their approaches. If you have a bright group of children they needn't be taken through material paragraph by paragraph. If you have children whose reading skills are deficient, you may wish to guide their reading in a content area almost line by line. If you were given a whole page, you'd be waiting half an hour for the slowest to finish, while behavior problems can develop and children fidget. Good instruction takes care of lots of pupil behavior that might be unattractive or undesirable. So, yes, we teach our pre-service students what some of the alternatives are. That's our role and our responsibility. "The student is expected to incorporate these suggestions into his next practice session." When? The sooner the practice session can follow the modelling the more freshly it is in their minds and the more things they are apt to incorporate, and that's good. "It is intended that the suggestions will be reflected in the practice teaching sessions of the other members of the group where appropriate." Of course!

My students learn more from each other, in terms of teaching behaviors, than they do really anywhere else in those fourth level courses. They get to see that certain personalities can do certain things and have them be effective, that certain other approaches are effective only under certain conditions and not in others, that certain kinds of visual aids, or certain uses of visual materials are more effective than others, that certain sequences are not adequate, while others facilitate instruction. They learn all that from their peers and in the micro-teaching setting. That is a significant part of the effectiveness of micro-teaching in enhancing the teaching expertise of the pre-service teacher. It comes out of their being both the peer-teacher and the peer-pupil as empathy is needed to function in either role. They have an opportunity to experience how others use their own intelligence and personality to facilitate learning and how it feels to be a pupil when instruction is inept as well as adequate.

The paper continues, "the main purpose of these sessions was to get students up on their feet to make presentations to a small group. The third modification is to develop skills necessitated by the curriculum." I couldn't agree more! I think this paper is a beautiful critique of the Stanford model. I haven't seen it critiqued any better anywhere. "The students are given an opportunity to practise the lesson before going into the classroom." I explain the idea of practice this way to my students. "This is a safe place to fall on your face. So try your ideas. Don't worry about it. We're practising. We can talk about what we might do to make it more effective before you go out with the children, before the teacher sees you doing this. We'll work on it." The paper is in agreement with this stance as it states, "Evaluation and feedback by the instructor and other members of the group permit the student to make changes that are considered necessary." Yes, the advantage of this type of practicum is that the skills are selected to suit the lesson being taught. So these are the modifications suggested in the paper, and they are also modifications I have made in my use of micro-teaching.

Quoting from the paper, "The student teachers are encouraged to view the selection of appropriate skills and techniques as a lifelong process in the development of their teaching styles." That is so necessary! And we need to help them in that selection. I have university students that have such interesting faces as they listen to children. Their listening act is beautiful—it's something special, almost a gift, and yet they can't see their own faces. They need us as mirrors to say, "This is a part of your style, don't lose it, keep doing this, it's beautiful"—those kinds of things.

The development of children is a concern of another suggestion. "An important part of this preparation would be to provide student teachers with the opportunity of carrying out their practicum in a classroom where the kinds of learning experiences are consistent with what is known about how young children learn best." You see, that really leaves the behaviouristic model away out there, and it brings us into looking at the curriculum and instruction as interaction process. She goes on to analyze, "Preparation would include the selection of the story itself, the discussion of the skills to be read in the story." (I model those for my students because I am a good demonstration teacher. It's one of my strengths—I might as well use it.) "The student would prepare to read the story to his peers and instructor, evaluation with the group and the instructor would provide an opportunity for improvement. The next step would be for the student to read the story in the classroom. Then feedback would be provided by the classroom teacher . . . the skills would be integrated into the teaching activity itself." All of this is the way I see micro-teaching working and working well. She says, "It is fair to say that research has not yet found the best method of preparing teachers, but we do know that effective teaching is the provocative combination of philosophy, psychological concepts and pedagogical techniques. More open and systematic interchange of ideas for the practicum of teacher education programs might indeed enable us to design one of the most imaginative and worthwhile programs of teacher education." And I agree. "Its shape and use can be as varied as the imagination of those who plan it." So so true! I feel those are really fine points.

The one thing I was going to add is that if we use the term, micro-teaching, we are always leaving a bit of implication that it might be the Stanford model that is being referred to. So I've changed the term. I speak to my students about simulations or the simulated experience, or peer presentations or peer teaching. That is what they are. In middle grade CI courses, I have the students select stories that might be suitable and quite interesting to their peers because the teaching skills are quite similar. Or when we get into the content reading area, I have them choose something out of social studies or science that might be fairly honest teaching even to their peers. The higher level selection lets the teaching become real and is therefore quite effective. With the primary CI courses, it is a little more difficult. I suggest that stories can be found in turn-of-the-century readers which their peer-pupils may not be familiar with if they are developing a Reading-Thinking lesson. I hope they must do honest teaching and not a play situation. I try to avoid totally any notion that "now we are playing like children." If we are studying child development we need to observe and work with children. If we are studying teaching behavior, then we can get some benefits from teaching in doing so whether with children or with one's peers.

In another university I taught a course that was what we called curriculum-free (which really bothered me, because teaching is always involved with curriculum content), in which we were to include the handling of various kinds of behavior problems. In order to do this the problem student was not known to the peer-teacher, nor was the role of misbehaver known to the peer-teacher as the peer-pupil acted out his role during the simulation. For instance, one student was assigned the task of being negative, to deny knowing, and not participating in the instruction and it was the peer-teacher's role to identify what was going on and to engage this student in some kind of participation in addition to carrying on the instruction with the other peer-pupils.

INTERVIEWER: But is it effective? The student playing the role has got to then change his role slightly, as a child would.

It gets very difficult. I don't like that, but I suppose it helps the student look at the complexity of the teacher's role when both instruction and behavior management must be attended to within the context of teaching a lesson. I don't like to think of teaching skills divorced from a good curriculum course. I would like to see good science and enquiry skills being taught in the science CI and the comprehension development skills being taught in the reading and language CI and so on.

I enjoyed both papers. The only thing I found lacking was that I was not sure of exactly what was the content in the micro-teaching sessions . . . and I had some difficulty with that. If I were making any critique, I would say they haven't been bold enough in abandoning the Stanford format and designing a micro-teaching experience which they would like for their own needs and objectives. Their own intelligent, instinctive response probably would do more with developing the potential of the involvement/feedback cycle.

INTERVIEWER: I think actually they had modified more than they admit. They claim it's based on Stanford but they have gone a long way from it. The first paper, that speaker pushes the idea of students getting to the point where they can think on their feet, which is totally non-behavioristic.

Yes, and so as I say, I might have been unfair in critiquing that first one, by thinking it fit the model more than it did.

INTERVIEWER: One of the things they get to in winter . . . is they try to teach thinking skills to children. . . . you have talked about that by asking questions that would force them to think.

I follow models, yes. I will take the Taba model for instance. That is the focus-extend-lift series of teaching moves that Hilda Taba has set forth so well. Here you help children focus on a particular problem, then you have children extend their ideas, and lift the level of their thinking by analyzing and evaluating or moving to an application level with their problem-solving. I have made some video-tapes with children in which I demonstrate this method or series of moves as Taba would think of them. My students when working on content-area reading follow it. On the video-tape, I've worked with a first grade class on the concept of container. I present them with a number of different objects and we achieve focus by asking, "What does this do when it is doing something for us?" Well, it is holding waste paper, or our soup, or candy, or coffee or whatever, and from this focus move on to the extend and lift stages of the Taba model.

INTERVIEWER: That fits in with Piaget beautifully.

Yes, it does. Of course Taba followed Piaget in her work. Then I also have a video-tape that goes into generalizing. That is a fourth grade class working on the problem of what does clothing do for us. The children develop their ideas just beautifully with the ideas that clothing assigns us our status, tells about our occupations, age, sex, country as well as to protect us from the elements, make us modest, etc. In this little class I worked with, I was moving toward their examining how the sexes are differentiated by clothing, and everyone of the little girls in the group was wearing slacks or jeans—not one in a dress! There I was being taped so I had to do some rather fast thinking on MY feet.

Yes, you can easily use micro-teaching to practise the moves in developing concepts or generalizations. We devised all the tapes in 1976 because we were in need of a practicum which did not put students into student teaching. (Our negotiations with schools for that year had broken down.) We worked with the micro-teaching alternative and students developed their skills quite well. What they did not get is first-hand experience with children. I could give you some prepared sheets that we outlined the Taba strategies on. One of the things the students don't understand is concepts. It's very hard to get a concept of concept—an abstraction of an abstraction. They have a difficult time knowing what it is that we mean and harder still to resolve the teaching into a series of effective moves. They do need a lot of help. I think it's an important experience for them to have.

To summarize my stance toward micro-teaching, I do respect it as a methodology, recognizing that there are limitations and not everything can be accomplished by this method. I don't believe my teaching in CI courses would be as effective as they are if I did not use this method of having students practise, and receive feedback, as well as to understudy the effective behaviors of their peers.

Summary

In this chapter, some of the current literature in the theory-practice integration domain has been surveyed.

Some of the issues in this area which were seen as important by people associated with the Montview Elementary Practicum were identified and discussed. A modified judicial evaluation segment dealt with the sensitive issue of micro-teaching.

Chapter 5

THE FACULTY AND ITS RELATIONSHIPS

In this chapter, several aspects of the work of the Montview Education faculty are reviewed. First, the question of the workload of members of the faculty and the quality of the work they do is examined. This is followed by a brief discussion of the faculty as innovators and some of the effects their innovations have had on the work of the Faculty of Education. Two types of relationships involving faculty members are then surveyed. The first is that between the faculty as one organization in an interorganizational relationship with several other organizations. The second type includes interpersonal relationships of faculty with their colleagues, their students and the cooperating teachers in the schools.

Although there are again obvious links between some of these issues, there is no overriding body of literature common to all issues as was the case in Chapter 4. Therefore, the literature relating to each issue is presented with each issue, instead of at the beginning of the chapter. This offers the advantage of closer links between the literature sections and the related data but tends to fragment the chapter.

Workload and Work Quality

Workload Literature

The literature was clear on one point. Education faculty members as a group carried a higher than average workload. In fact, statistics for Canadian universities showed that the average Education faculty workload was higher than the average workload for all other faculties (Andrews, 1982). One of the reasons for this, according to Gillis (1981), was that many new demands were being made on schools and teachers by the public, and that these demands eventually filtered through to teacher training institutions. In a situation where faculty numbers are static, or even declining, it is clear that each extra program component creates a heavier workload for present staff members.

Conant (1963) proclaimed that faculty advisors should have status analogous to that of a clinical professor in a medical school, and should not be expected to research and publish. However, in spite of several similar declarations during the last twenty years, traditional university criteria for acquiring status appear to have changed very little. Research and publication remain almost mandatory for advancement to positions of higher status. The problem remains even for faculty members in positions where non-traditional criteria are used for advancement. To remain eligible for appointment to posts in other universities, they feel the need to carry out traditional research and to publish their findings. To do this properly, and still play an active part in student supervision and undergraduate teaching requires a level of energy not vouchsafed to many. In a paper devoted mainly to arguing for a new vision of the faculty advisor, Bowman (1979) argued that the way advisors now supervised students in schools was artificial, damaging to advisors' careers and very costly both in time and money. The enormous time commitment demanded by field supervision effectively ruled out the possibility of the supervisors doing research.

Corrigan (1982), while writing mainly of the United States situation, stated that his arguments were generalizable. He identified lack of money as one of the major problems of teacher education institutions, relative to other professional schools. This effectively prevented institutions from hiring an adequate number of staff. He supplied some dramatic comparisons including the disbursement of more funds for the education of the average grade three child than the average teacher education student, and the requirement of eight years training for a veterinarian compared with four years for a teacher.

Quality of Work Literature

Not surprisingly, given the apparent chronic overload of these people, there appears to be some evidence that not all faculty advisors are seen to be successful in their present role. However, it would be premature at this stage to assume that faculty overload is the sole cause of these kinds of results, especially given the dubious quality of much workload research.

Two studies carried out by an evaluation unit at Montview University produced indications that advisors were not always perceived as useful. In the earlier study (II, 1979), 20% of the pre-interns who completed the questionnaire stated that their advisors were of little or no help in promoting professional development. In the follow-up study (III, 1980), pre-intern students were even less satisfied with the role of the advisors in helping to promote the students' overall professional development. Two caveats need to be borne in mind.

First, since these studies were completed, major restructuring of the micro-teaching component of the Montview program has been carried out. This has meant that faculty advisors in general now have far less time committed to conducting micro-teaching sessions and consequently more time for other forms of assistance to students.

Second, the questionnaires were given to all the pre-interns in classes at the end of the Pre-internship Year (Second Year). However, in both the 1979 and 1980 studies, less than two-thirds of the students were present in class. It is plausible that the one-third of students who had absented themselves from classes (and the questionnaire) may have had a more negative attitude to the program (and faculty advisors) than those students still attending classes. This would mean that the results obtained gave an underestimate of the dissatisfaction felt.

Bowman (1979) claimed that in addition to the problems inherent in the role of faculty advisor which led to excessive workloads, the evidence showed that faculty advisors had little effect on interns' behavior anyway. In a rather small sample study (one advisor, three teachers, three students), Zimpher, de Voss and Nott (1980) counterclaimed that advisors had an important role to play. Their list of four activities for supervisors, however, did not appear to contain anything which could not have been accomplished by more careful preparation of cooperating teachers for their roles.

Possible Solutions from the Literature

Most of the solutions offered specified some change(s) in the activities in which the advisors were to engage which would simultaneously improve their job performance and reduce their workload.

Bowman (1979), XXII (1983), XX (1977) and Tom (1981) all argued that advisors should spend their time in schools, not so much observing students teaching, but working with cooperating teachers as resource people. The old pattern of the whirlwind visit to observe several students teaching, then rushing on to another school or back to the university was viewed particularly unfavorably in the Montview study (XX, 1977; XXII, 1983).

Tom (1981) and Andrews (1983) added another dimension. Both saw the need for faculty advisors to be given time to do research. Tom stressed the need for practice-based research and for this type of research to receive status. Andrews reported on the CSSE recommendation to the SSHRC that monies be provided to free members of college faculties to do research. He stated that Education faculty members currently submit very few research proposals to the SSHRC, probably partly because their workloads prevent them from considering research. Joyce (1981) reported that from 45,000 North American professors of education only five or six studies of training appeared annually.

Although he was writing of teachers in classrooms, Bates (1982:17) made what is probably a generalizable point. This was that changes in educational practice may often be inhibited by what Bates called "rituals and routines" (ibid.). Thus, even if no change in roles is desired, it may still be possible to dramatically reduce workloads by a critical examination of how present tasks are carried out.

Another type of approach to the problems of faculty workloads and faculty advisor quality concentrated on describing the people who should be faculty advisors.

Two of the more moderate portrayals of desirable faculty advisors were provided by Conant (1963) and Theory to Practice (1981). Conant suggested the use of excellent teachers who returned to school teaching periodically. The committee which prepared Theory to Practice (1981) recommended that faculty advisors be models for students, certified teachers with relevant classroom experience, involved in theoretical parts of the program and closely involved with cooperating teachers to ensure integration of theory and practice.

The Secondary Task Force report at Montview (XV, 1980) took a quite different approach. It stated that all Curriculum and Instruction instructors should be involved in field work. Clearly, this would spread the workload more equitably than is often the case. Equally clearly, this policy would place some people in the field against their wishes and possibly against the best interests of their advisees.

In a history of the new elementary program at Montview (XVI, 1982), it was suggested that a previous Dean of the faculty promised that sufficient financial resources would be available to adequately staff the new program. When the needed money did not materialize, faculty had to take on increased workloads, and more graduate students and sessionals had to be employed (ibid.:10).

In the following section, a detailed examination of some perceptions about faculty workload and the quality of faculty work is presented.

Data and Interpretation

When asked to rate the importance of this issue to the Montview Elementary Practicum, none of the twenty three faculty members who responded viewed the issue as trivial. Six saw it as moderately important and seventeen as of crucial importance.

Problems of Excessive Workloads

It is not difficult to see why the above ratings were made. Many of the faculty appeared to have accepted commitments which were all but physically impossible to keep. The researcher observed meetings where key people were late or absent altogether because of time clashes with other commitments. Faculty attended supper meetings after full days of other professional duties. The researcher observed one faculty member who supervised students in a rural placement in the morning and then travelled four hundred miles in the afternoon, returning to Montview too late for a meal before taking an evening class. Faculty members at the Internship Seminar as group leaders made one hundred mile round trips to fulfill teaching commitments at Montview when there was no one available to fill in.

Saturday meetings were not uncommon and the first Sunday meeting had recently been forced upon faculty because of time constraints. The result appeared to be a faculty which never 'switched off' from thinking and talking about faculty business. The researcher attended one evening social function (which could not begin until 9.30 p.m. because of faculty work commitments) and observed with astonishment a dozen faculty members talking and arguing about teacher education until 2.00 a.m. the next day.

Faculty members were outspoken on this issue.

> At certain times of the year, we're into a sort of survival mentality, when anything except the most important things get dropped. (62, faculty member)

> We say a load of 16-20 interns is about equivalent to teaching two classes, but we often break that because people teach a couple of classes and have 8-10 interns. (35, faculty administrator)

> To give adequate supervision is difficult . . . Sometimes with overload, this is delayed too long. (93, referring to a student who withdrew from the program after experiencing problems with the Internship)

> So they're [faculty] in a bit of a dilemma, because that means they cut themselves up three ways (fieldwork, teaching and research) and then you add the community service component to that, and you have someone who's going to burn out. (33, faculty member)

Speaking of health problems associated with a large workload:

> I see lots of breakdown of belief round here, followed by physical illness, anger, excessive drinking. We're all very good at hiding it. (15, sessional instructor)

> ________ [faculty member] does an awful lot for one man; someone's got to suffer, whether him from lack of sleep or the other ones [students] from a lack of support. (53, pre-intern)

> People get tired. Maybe the program is then viewed irrationally as the monster which is eating the energy. (83, faculty member)

One sessional staff member, although not carrying a heavy administrative load, and certainly not portraying herself as unfairly loaded vis-à-vis other faculty members, had the following load:

1. Twenty six involvement (First Year) students in thirteen schools.
2. Five pre-interns in a school forty five miles from Montview.
3. Teaching four days per week.

This load was in addition to studying for a higher degree.

A rather different interpretation of the workload issue was provided by a faculty member who said about the theory-practice issue in EdGen226 and the large staff time commitments involved:

> I think the motive didn't have much to do with the theory-practice issue. It may have been used to justify holding the staff-student ratio. It keeps a lot of people busy and because a lot of profs are not specifically trained for it, you get a wide variation in quality. (31)

This type of interpretation was not common, although another faculty member suggested that the use of schools in the north of the province for intern placements, and the location of some faculty vacation cottages nearby, may not have been totally unrelated.

He went on to instance another faculty member.

> He would spend all his time off-campus if it was at all possible, and when on campus, sitting in on others' classes. He's got nothing else to do. He fills out his cards as being terribly busy. He's a ------ ---. (8, faculty member)

A rather different approach to the workload question involved the notion of inequitable workloads.

> There is a lot of inequity and some people are very bitter. Some people are working their tails off and others don't seem to do much at all, including research. (93, faculty member)

In answer to a question from the researcher about the division of workloads into field work, teaching and research, another faculty member said of those who did no field work:

> I'm not sure that they're doing research either, to be frank. They just take their classes and supposedly, in theory, that would be balanced off with research and publication. I'm not

> sure that's really happening . . . We have people that are doing research, publications, writing books, still working in the field and still teaching classes. (33, faculty member)

Another faculty member, heavily involved in field work, was understandably incensed about the following informal conversation over coffee:

> I talked . . . about workload and discussing people running and doing a lot of things and he said "I absolutely refuse. The rest of you who are doing it are absolute fools." (83, faculty member)

Faculty administrators are aware of this problem.

> That they're willing to take it is good for us, but it's a burden. People get a little bit perturbed and say "Why should I, year after year, be doing this kind of thing when there's somebody else sitting in his office." (35, faculty administrator)

Suggested Solutions to the Workload Problem

Predictably, there was no shortage of ideas for solving the workload problem. Seven different types of approaches will be briefly described below. All but the last involve some sort of value judgement about the program.

Reducing student numbers obviously reduces the average faculty workload, but may also eventually lead to faculty strength reduction. It would be done after First Year, on the basis of Grade Point Average and student attitude. As the issue of student selection is discussed more fully in Chapter 6, examination of how best to measure student attitude, and the implications of excluding students after First Year will be left until then.

Pairing pre-intern students is already done in Section E. Extending this to all pre-intern (and possibly involvement) students would save some travelling time for the faculty. The researcher spoke to three cooperating teachers with experience in this practice. Two were satisfied with it, one was very enthusiastic.

Several faculty members spoke of rationalizing field placements. Such ideas as abandoning distant placements, placing four students in each school to be served by one advisor, computer placement to reduce the mammoth task of the Coordinator of Professional Development who now does the placements by hand, and a search for and elimination of inefficiencies in the program (see Bates, 1982, on Rituals and Routines, op. cit.) were put forward.

Though a tendentious concept, some faculty members spoke of faculty advisor training to allow participation in the field work by more of the faculty. This assumes all faculty are willing and able to carry out this task (see Conant, 1963, and Theory to Practice, 1981). One faculty member responded to the researcher's question about this assumption thus:

> I guess I'd have to ask the question, if we're not here on the business of teaching, knowing something about teaching, why are we here? (51, faculty advisor)

A suggestion which addressed concerns about lack of time for research, and also the problem of a non-existent science of pedagogy (see Carr, 1980 and Cooley, 1982) was for faculty advisors to use school visits to collect data for field-oriented research as well as for visiting students.

A more expensive suggestion was to employ outside faculty advisors as is done at Simon Fraser University and the University of Saskatchewan. This violates the principle of "those who deliver the program are those who supervise it" (14, faculty member), but would save a substantial amount of faculty advisor time.

The final method of attack on the workload problem was implied rather than suggested. First, Andrews (1983) stated that statistically Education professors have a heavier workload than professors in any other faculty. He gave no justification for why this should be the case. Second, the president of Montview University stated that the university recognized that field work was a legitimate load factor. Third, the president also indicated that he was unaware of any special workload problem experienced by Education faculty members in comparison with members of other faculties.

> . . . There's no great bubbling up either from non-education guys of 'look at those lazy guys over there,' or conversely from Education 'we are too heavily loaded and we need fifteen more bodies,' so I feel it's not bad, because I'm not getting strenuous messages one way or another, and we did do that analysis three or four years back when the program was building into phase and enrolments were going down. But now they're going up again so maybe there'd be a requirement to add people.

It seems possible that some relief from the present very high workloads experienced by some Education faculty members may be available if a well-substantiated case could be made and if the present perceived problems of inequitable workloads could be solved.

Problems of Faculty Advisor Quality

Given the existing problems of overload, it is perhaps remarkable that a substantial majority of students and a smaller majority of cooperating teachers approved of the work done by advisors. This was the case in the interviews and was supported by the post-internship questionnaires. Many very positive comments were made. A selection is given below.

> He practises what he preaches. I was lucky to get an advisor like him. (78, pre-intern)
>
> Excellent. Fantastic. (74, pre-intern)
>
> ________ [advisor] gave me insight into myself, my potential and some of my difficulties. I could never ask for a more trusting and open person. To her I hand the greatest respect. (Intern questionnaire response)
>
> ________ and ________ are both good. (2, cooperating teacher)
>
> The conferences are really useful. (Cooperating teacher on questionnaire)
>
> Rapport and trust were established. (48, intern)
>
> They accept their supervision responsibility. (45, Director of Education, rural)

These comments seem to indicate that many of the advisors are seen to be effective by students, teachers and administrators.

However, not all the comments made were quite as positive as those above. The nature of the negative comments is perhaps equally as important as the nature of the positive comments.

A reporting method sometimes used by quantitative researchers may distract attention from potentially solvable program problems (see for example II, 1979). The method points out that x% of a sample viewed a particular feature of a program in a positive light. If the value of x is high enough, readers may tend to ignore the (100 - x%) of the sample who were not happy with the program feature. With regard to satisfaction with the advisor's role in promoting professional development, 80% of a Montview elementary pre-intern sample in 1979 professed some degree of satisfaction (II, 1979). The percentage was rather less in 1980 (III, 1980). While these appeared to be very gratifying findings about Montview advisors, the complementary finding was that in 1979, 20% of all students believed that they received little or no help in professional development from their assigned advisors. In 1980, the situation was worse. In a year-group of about one hundred and fifty students, there were therefore probably over thirty students whose advisors were seen by their advisees to be not helping them in promoting their professional growth. Several types of grievances were identified in the present study.

Some respondents complained of advisors who were uncommitted, unskilled or unwilling:

> Some have been here too long. They don't understand the new ways. (23, pre-intern)
>
> Many faculty advisors take students unwillingly. Some have never taught. (20, faculty advisor, graduate student)
>
> Some don't want to watch students teach. (75, principal, otherwise very sympathetic to Montview program)
>
> If they're breathing and warm, we use them. (Comment made by faculty member during Professional Development Committee meeting)
>
> When advisors are appointed, make sure they know what their job is. My first advisor didn't have a clue about anything. Was rude, walked right into class when teaching, stayed five minutes, then left. He was the -----. (Intern questionnaire response)
>
> Some don't believe in the program. We've recommended these not be used, but this leads to a worse load for the rest. (76, principal, who is a staunch supporter of the program, and has been since early planning stages)
>
> She tried, but her experience with it amounted to that of a first year teacher. (Intern questionnaire response)
>
> Some faculty aren't really tuned in to the supervision cycle. In other words, they'll go out. But they'll publicly state that this is what they say [the faculty] but don't worry about that. (33, faculty member)

The Conant (1963) and Theory to Practice (1981) criteria for faculty advisors do not appear to have been met (see literature section above). On the other hand, to supervise all Montview students with advisors who meet the above criteria would place impossible workloads on such people.

Many students claimed that advisors saw them infrequently and rarely if ever saw a complete lesson.

> Three to four times is not enough. (71, Fourth Year student)
>
> Two visits, one of which was just 'Hi!' It's hard to judge if he's helpful. He should come more often. (56, pre-intern)
>
> Only out two times. It's hard to give advice on something you don't see that often. (Intern questionnaire response)

This problem is directly related to unrealistically high workloads. It has led to problems in student appeals, where inadequate supervision by an advisor has led to the upholding of a student appeal to the Joint Field Experience Committee against a teaching round grade. The researcher, on the other hand, observed one advisor, a seconded teacher, who visited her pre-interns at least once every two weeks, and more often in cases of students with problems. This was appreciated by students, cooperating teachers and her faculty group leader.

A third type of concern related to advisors' use of clinical supervision. On the internship evaluation questionnaire, almost every student indicated a belief in the helpfulness of clinical supervision. However, quite a number of advisors do not use clinical supervision when observing student lessons. Again, this is related to faculty workload. An extra half hour per student for adequate clinical supervision requires a significant extra time commitment from advisors with eight to ten students to supervise.

Solutions

There are no simple, inexpensive solutions. If, however, there is sufficient concern about the students whose professional abilities may be sub-optimally developed, a number of avenues might be explored. All of these avenues were suggested by Montview people.

1. Deliberate recruitment of faculty with demonstrated skills in this area. This would be a long term solution in the present no-growth situation.

2. Training of faculty advisors. As one very effective advisor pointed out, "We were all bad advisors at one time" (14). This faculty member was not unaware of the probable differential receptivity to offers of training but was optimistic that if it were handled sensitively, some extra faculty could be brought into the advisor workforce.

3. The most effective, but most expensive, way to improve the quality of supervision involves two steps. First, unwilling advisors would be encouraged to withdraw from supervision duties and take up tasks more suited to their inclinations. Second, teachers or ex-teachers would be very carefully selected and thoroughly trained to use the clinical supervision cycle and to be familiar with the aims of the program. The selection might be done on the basis of recommendations by faculty and teachers who knew them well as teachers (Professional Development Committee meeting, 1982). This would run counter to the program principle that those who teach the program are also the field supervisors. However, this principle is already being

violated without producing the positive results which might be anticipated with the implementation of the above approach.

Summary

The issue of faculty workload is closely related to that of the quality of faculty advisor performance. A decrease in faculty workload would allow an improvement in faculty advisor performance as it became less necessary to press unwilling people into supervision duties. The provision of some extra finance to facilitate improvements in these areas seems to be needed and justifiable. At the same time, attention to a number of other features of the program might bring about quite substantial improvements in both workload and supervision.

Faculty as Innovators

The heavy faculty workloads discussed above can be largely attributed to major changes since 1972 in the way school experience is organized at Montview. Members of the faculty played a major role in introducing and implementing these changes. Although the role of faculty members as innovators was seen as a crucial issue by eleven faculty members, one saw it as a trivial issue and ten as only moderately important. It was one of the least valued of the 'people-related' issues (those issues discussed in Chapters 5 and 6).

The Literature

The literature to be presented here deals with two main questions. First, some reasons for the often temporary character of program innovations are discussed. Then a brief survey of some forces for and against change is presented.

Reasons for the Decay of Innovations.

One common and easily understood reason for the short average life-span of innovations in educational institutions is that the innovator frequently leaves the organization after initiating changes (Joyce, 1981:12). This can be understood in an academic milieu where promotions or new positions in other institutions often accrue to those who can demonstrate innovativeness within their present institution. It is understandable that new programs often collapse when their prime movers relocate to new posts.

More subtle reasons for the failure of innovations to 'take root' were discussed by Parish and Arends (1983) and Doyle and Ponder (1977). Although they used rather different terms to describe the phenomenon, both sets of authors stressed the need to fit innovations into existing structures with considerable sensitivity. In particular, there was a need to take account of the views, values and beliefs of program personnel.

Doyle and Ponder defined the 'practicality ethic' for successful innovations (1977:6) as three overlapping criteria. These were instrumentality, congruence and cost. Instrumentality referred to the need for innovators to describe how the new program would work in clear, practical terms. Congruence referred to the "perceived 'match' between the change proposal and prevailing conditions" (ibid.:8). Prevailing conditions included the self-images of people in the program. Cost was a reference to the cost-benefit analysis which is usually done by program people before they adopt new proposals. Proposals whose perceived costs outweigh perceived benefits are rarely implemented.

In writing of the implementation of innovations, Parish and Arends (1983:64) stressed three things. These were the need to understand the culture of the organization, the provision of ample training time for program people and the need for sensitivity to the actual loci of different levels of implementation.

The school culture concept was very similar to Doyle and Ponder's congruence concept (op. cit.). In the discussion of ample training time, Parish and Arends stressed the need for all program people to have ample time and opportunity to change their behaviors, skills and beliefs. They claimed that this might need extended training over a long period of time.

They also pointed out that while approval for innovation has to be sought at one level, the actual implementation is done at another level. They claimed that sensitivity to these different loci of innovation was vital to successful implementation.

Forces For and Against Change

Hopkins (1979:3) stated that:

> It appears from our research and the literature that there are two major contributors to change in teacher education; environmental pressures and internal norms.

In a recent account of the history of the new Montview Elementary Practicum (XVI, 1982:20-22), the authors listed thirteen factors which they believed supported change. Most of these could readily be classified as examples of environmental pressure or internal norms. In the same article (XVI, 1982:22-25), ten forces against change were identified. Most of these reflected some aspect of the fact that people were naturally cautious about their involvement in dramatic changes, and wished to explore all the implications before making a commitment to change.

Hopkins (1979:5,6) wrote of the potentially stultifying effects of 'loose coupling' in educational institutions. He argued that Weick's article on loose coupling (1976) implied that change would be very difficult to implement within educational institutions.

However, the same loose coupling concept may be invoked to explain why some innovations are able to occur in educational institutions. Weick (1976:6-9) discussed both the functions and dysfunctions of loose coupling. The third and fourth functions are of interest. Loosely coupled systems may be good systems for localized adaptation without affecting the whole system, and such systems "can retain a greater number of mutations and novel solutions than would be the case with a tightly coupled system" (Weick, 1976:6-7).

The Data

Weick's Loose Coupling

The Montview innovations may be interpreted within a loose coupling framework. The early experimental modifications (Section H and the 'experience bank') were able to be instituted without affecting the whole system. Second, these novel solutions were able to be retained for several years in the early 1970's. In Weick's terms (1976:7), Section H and the 'experience bank' represented 'cultural insurance' which was drawn on at the time of radical change when the new program in its entirety was implemented.

University Policy

> It is a deliberate part of the strategy of the institution to be innovative, and recognized as such within even the most conservative faculties. (6, President of Montview University)

The above comment by the university president clearly indicates that there is a favorable climate for innovations at the administrative level of Montview University. Earlier, the president had indicated that the plans for the Education faculty innovations had received support from university administration right from the earliest planning stages.

The Survival of the New Program

Several reasons for the terminations of many innovative programs were identified above. The first reason was the withdrawal from the program of the major innovator. This had not occurred at Montview. Most of the people who were involved in the implementation of the new program are still on faculty. In particular, the person who led the innovating group is still on faculty. His role is discussed below in the section titled 'An Important Innovator.'

The situation with respect to the other factors often associated with the death of innovations is not as clear. It is arguable that some program people found an inadequate match between their roles in the new program and their own concepts of appropriate roles for university faculty (see Doyle and Ponder, 1977:6). This was not a serious enough problem to cause the new program to be discontinued.

It could also be argued that in their enthusiasm to see the new program in place, insufficient time was made available by the group installing the new program for people to acquire training in the new skills needed in the new program (see Parish and Arends, 1983, cited above). Against this argument is the fact that the first pilots of the new program were running for several years as Section H and the 'experience bank' before full implementation of the new program. This is not to say that all faculty members were able or willing to participate in the pilot programs and thus master the special skills called for in the new program.

In the event, the innovation survived and is now the program experienced by all Montview Elementary Education students.

On a smaller scale, a number of modifications have occurred and are occurring to offer students opportunities to specialize within the Elementary Program. Each fits the basic structure of the new program with adaptations to fit the special needs of particular groups of students.

A selection of faculty views about these ongoing modifications is presented in the next section.

Faculty Opinions about Continual Change

Faculty opinions about these continual changes varied.

> Stop with these herculean changes every year. "Whatever's new has got to be tried" seems to be the predominant attitude here. No one can adduce evidence for the superiority of the new program. (31, faculty member)

Another faculty member spoke of the difficulty of getting changes through faculty committees, and the consequences when people circumvented the committee route to implement change.

> I would say some people ignore it [committees] and do it, and then when things are done, there are problems. They say

> 'How can you do that?' The rule [use committees] becomes more important than the doing. (83, faculty member)

It is understandable that people become frustrated with apparently obstructionist committees blocking desired innovations. It is also understandable that there should be resistance directed against new procedures introduced via 'the back door.' Many faculty members were in favor of a policy of constant revision.

> So it's been accepted that we revise what's going on each year. (42, faculty member, heavily involved in the new program)

> I never say anything negative about new things . . . It would be my concern if nothing was happening . . . As long as not all innovations are being done by a few people. (14, faculty member, advisor, involved in one of the new modifications)

> I think that the more we try alternatives the better. (8, faculty member not involved in the new modifications)

A more cautious note was struck by a faculty member who, although he approved of constant change, recognized the need for faculty to adjust to this kind of milieu.

> I think it's healthy and good. I suppose it's a bit of learning to accept an environment that appears to be in a flux. Maybe that has to be if you're going to have initiatives. (51, faculty member, involved in innovations from the beginning)

The same respondent had also earlier recognized the fact that constant change had left insufficient time and energy to consolidate courses and develop curriculum materials.

Another faculty member bowed to the reality of finite human resources in the faculty.

> Yes, definitely, we've reached our limit as I see it as to what we can do. We can reshuffle and reorganize, but anything more we want to do, something's got to drop off the end of the assembly line. (3, faculty member with little involvement in current changes)

Discussion about the issue of further change at Montview might well take account of the following features of the present program.

1. There are now four new modifications under the umbrella of the Elementary Degree Program either in place, or at an advanced stage of planning.

2. At least one of the modifications seems likely to attract quite large numbers of additional students. Two of the others are quite likely to attract extra students.

3. It seems unlikely that substantial numbers of new staff will be hired.

4. Students already complain of too few visits by faculty advisors, many of whom are heavily involved in the planning and implementing of the modifications.

An Important Innovator

Reference was made above to an internal history of the new Elementary Program (XVI, 1982). It contained a list of 'Forces for Change.' The fifth force for change named an individual faculty member and described him as energetic, knowledgeable, visionary and capable of drawing about him a group of people whose dedication to the new program increased with time. This person remains on faculty and remains totally committed to the new program, as do most of the original group.

This man, who seems to have been the major driving force behind the innovations, was asked by the researcher whether he believed that the program changes would have been implemented had he not been appointed to faculty. While acknowledging his own role in providing direction for the changes, he stated that he also believed that the internal and external climate of the faculty at the time was such that some change was inevitable. His crucial role in the interorganizational relationships surrounding the Montview Elementary Practicum will be examined in the following section.

The Faculty in Interorganizational Relationships

The study of interorganizational relationships is a relatively new field. In 1972, Marrett identified four dimensions of such relationships. These were reciprocity, standardization, formalization and intensity. Much of the work on relationships between organizations since then has adopted a similar approach (see, for example, Van der Ven, Emmett and Koenig, 1974; Van der Ven, 1976; Van der Ven, Walker and Liston, 1979). Marrett generated two predictions based on her study of interorganizational dimensions. One of these will be examined at the beginning of the data section.

The Literature

The literature surveyed here is divided for convenience into three somewhat overlapping categories. These are statements about the importance of interorganizational relationships, accounts of interorganizational relationships involving teacher training institutions and some normative statements about interorganizational relationships in the teacher training context.

Perceived Importance of Interorganizational Relationships

Writing of a study at York University in which he participated, Hopkins (1980:7,8) noted the existence of 'two cultures,' that of the school and that of the university. He argued that this phenomenon can easily lead to problems of 'ownership' of the practicum and that both schools and university must be involved in planning and implementing practica to avoid the waste of "enormous potential and possibilities" (ibid.:8).

The need for careful coordination between the agencies involved in planning and implementing the Montview Internship Seminar was recognized (XIII, 1976). It was claimed that the relationships between the organizations were one of the strengths of the program (ibid.).

Pereira (1982) reported an evaluation of a new five-year teacher education program at the University of Minho, Portugal. Among the evaluators' recommendations was for more cooperation between the university and the school system. As noted in Chapter 1 above, Baugher had said exactly that, fifty one years earlier (1931), in a North American context.

Interorganizational Relationships in Practice

In a history of Normal Schools in Alberta, Patterson (1982:11) noted a decline in the quality of the relationships between schools and universities in Alberta. This appeared to be in spite of efforts by teacher training institutions to involve schools in making decisions about practica. The percentage of anglophone teacher training institutions in Canada with a schools/faculty committee dealing with the school experience was 25% in 1971 (Channon, 1971). Ten years later, after a follow-up study, the same researcher (Gillis, née Channon, 1981:9) stated:

> Many institutions have also made a sincere attempt to work more closely with teachers, particularly in regard to the practicum, but sometimes in regard to program as well.

Two claims were made by faculty members regarding interorganizational relationships at Montview. In Learning to Teach—A Shared Responsibility (1981:2), the following statement was made:

> Two aspects of the growth and development of teacher education programs in ________ [province] make it unique. One is the cooperation and mutual respect shared by the agencies—the Faculty of Education, the Department of Education and the Teachers' Federation. The second is the strong role played by the teaching profession in defining and advocating improvement and change.

In a history of the new elementary program at Montview (XVI, 1982), the importance of the relationships between organizations was stressed:

> The effectiveness of the theory/practice aspects of development would not be possible without close cooperation between the provincial Teachers' Federation, the provincial School Trustees' Association, the Department of Education and the University. Cooperation in implementation and financing takes place in various ways.

The point which is being made here seems to be that at Montview, there is a genuine interorganizational relationship between the organizations mentioned. Its features include permanence, real joint action, and perceived benefits to all parties. It would be interesting to check for the existence of these features in some of the poor relationships found by Patterson (1982:11).

Normative Statements about Interorganizational Relationships

> The responsibility for developing and implementing policies in the new secondary program at Montview should be vested in a committee representing Faculty, students, the Teachers' Federation, the Department of Education and the School Trustees' Association. (Submission to the Task Force on Secondary Education by the Provincial Teachers' Federation, 1978)

A similar position was taken by Horowitz (1974:83), although he identified the university Faculty of Education as a senior partner with primary responsibility for the preparation of teachers.

In the report of a review of extended practica in Alberta universities (Theory to Practice, 1982:43), it was recommended that the Minister of Education be finally responsible for determining skills and competencies required of teachers. The Alberta Teachers' Association, Alberta School Trustees' Association, Conference of Alberta School Superintendents and the universities were mentioned in the recommendation only as bodies to be consulted by the Minister. This recommendation appears to place considerable power in the hands of an elected official, who may be displaced with a change in government. On the other hand, it could be argued that such a mechanism permits the 'will of the people' with respect to education to be more accurately expressed through their membership in the organizations.

Data and Interpretations

The Marrett Hypothesis

After identifying four major dimensions of interorganizational relationships, Marrett embodied them in two hypotheses. The hypothesis which appears to fit the Montview situation is as follows. The larger the size of the human and material resources invested in the relationship, the greater is the likelihood of agreements being formalized, standardization occurring (i.e., close specification of the units of exchange), and reciprocity of exchange taking place (i.e., each party gaining material or non-material resources from membership in the relationship).

If the interorganizational collaboration in the implementation of the Internship Seminars is examined, there appears to be quite massive human and material resource investment. The Faculty of Education pays for accommodation and food for the Seminar (for about two hundred people for a week), the Department of Education provides substitute teachers to allow cooperating teachers to attend the Seminar and the Teachers' Federation covers travel costs and those printing costs not borne by the university. Added to these material costs is the investment of five and a half days of quite intensive interaction by the Seminar leaders, numbering about forty and representing the various organizations interested in the Practicum.

In spite of the substantial nature of these resource investments, there seems to be little evidence of the existence of formalized agreements. Very little standardization or specification of units of exchange seems to have occurred, although some objectives for the Seminars are identified in the form of a statement of the planned outcome in Learning to Teach—A Shared Responsibility (1981). There is some evidence of reciprocity of exchange in that while the Faculty of Education needs the human and material resources from the other organizations in order to run the Seminars, the Teachers'

Federation and Department of Education benefit eventually by the contribution of the Seminar to the production of better teachers. A partial explanation for this very limited support for the hypothesis might be found in the activities of a number of boundary spanners.

Boundary Spanners at Montview

Tushman and Scanlan (1981a) defined boundary spanners as internal communication stars who have substantial communication with areas outside their units. An internal star was defined in a later paper (Tushman and Scanlan, 1981b) as one whose number of oral communications within the organization over a five-week period was greater than one standard deviation above the mean number of units of oral communication. Boundary spanning status appears to interact with perceived competence and the frequency of colleague consultation. One of the key roles of such people is to "convert words into the second semantic space while retaining messages held in the first" (Tushman and Scanlan, 1981b).

There appears to be a great deal of boundary spanning involving the organizations concerned with the Montview Elementary Practicum.

An historical accident in Montview produced a boundary spanner having very strong links with two key organizations interested in teacher education. A person who had been an official of the provincial Teachers' Federation and was held by them in high regard was appointed to the Faculty of Education. Thus he was rapidly able to become competent in the "semantic spaces" (ibid.:291) of both university faculty and Teachers' Federation.

> ________ [his name] knew people in school systems—so got them to assist. He'd built up a credibility so when he spoke, it wasn't for self-seeking power. (76, a principal, whose involvement in the new Practicum arrangements extends right back to early planning stages)

A director of education also drew attention to the activities of this person, claiming that the "Teachers' Federation tie-in with the university through ________ [name] got cooperation from the start" (45, director of education, rural area).

A long-serving member of the Teachers' Federation summed up the importance of relationships in Montview in a paper delivered to a conference in Montview in 1983. He referred to a unique situation characterized by the small size of the province, the close personal relationships between Teachers' Federation and faculty, personal friends in the Department of Education, families spanning two organizations, ________ (the man referred to above) as ideas man and the meeting of all groups as equals at conferences and the Internship Seminar.

The lack of support for Marrett's hypothesis becomes understandable in the light of the close complex of relationships described above. The presence of boundary spanners makes the communication between organizations more likely to be clear and accurate and the result is a situation involving expenditure of quite large amounts of resources, with remarkably little formalization.

The Current Status of Montview Interorganizational Relationships

There are seen to be some imperfections in the interorganizational relationships involving the Education faculty. A Department of Education officer claimed that there was little Department input into the Elementary Program at Montview.

> It's a combination of two factors. One, we've never had the resources in the Department. Two, the universities don't want interference. (67, Department of Education officer)

An officer of the School Trustees' Association spoke of the type of input provided by non-university members of joint committees.

> They have lots to say about how long students' courses should be and certification, but little thought is given to educational programs. This is a lost opportunity for public input into university programs. (86, Trustees' Association officer)

Both of the comments contain viewpoints which might be worth the consideration of faculty members.

Current relationships between the Faculty of Education and other organizations seem to be unusually good. Support for this interpretation was found in numerous very positive comments, only a small sample of which has been presented above. Further support, although less recent, was found in The Management of Change in Teacher Education (1979) especially in Section M (ibid.:59) dealing with Montview's relationships with the environment.

> In general, the responses to this scale suggest that the Montview faculty has relatively good and consistent relationships with external agencies.

It may be appropriate to conclude this section with some remarks made by an official of the Teachers' Federation, one of the major partners in the Montview interorganizational relationship. These remarks are taken seriously out of context. The context was a conference presentation in which the speaker had repeatedly stressed the strengths of the very good relationships between faculty and Federation. As well, the speaker said:

> It is unrealistic or immoral to use school systems without involving schools in policy-making and governance. . . . In many major decisions, schools have no control over issues which affect them. For example, supervision of practice and placement of students . . . If you don't involve others in your plans, the plans probably won't be implemented anyway. (XXII, 1983)

Interpersonal Relationships

Faculty members at Montview are involved in interpersonal relationships with each other, with cooperating teachers and with students. Large majorities of faculty members viewed each of these types of relationship as issues of crucial importance. It is perhaps noteworthy that of the three people who regarded faculty-student relationships as of only trivial importance, none is still involved in school supervision.

The Literature

The literature has been divided into four main sections. First is an introduction based on the general remarks made by Wideen, Hopkins and Fullan (1980) after their survey of anglophone teacher training institutions in Canada. This is followed by a survey of some literature in which power differences are seen as obstacles to interpersonal relationships in teacher training contexts. Some suggested remedies for imperfect relationships follow and the literature section concludes with some descriptions of attempts to enhance interpersonal relationships at Montview.

Introduction

Wideen, Hopkins and Fullan (1980) noted that most members of faculties of education were "critical of the lack of a common philosophy and group cohesion" (ibid.:28). Other comments made reference to diversity, isolation and suspicion between colleagues, and an inability of leaders to develop a sense of common purpose among faculty members. All respondents claimed that faculty politics helped prevent healthy change, and that excessive concern with status and ego helped promote fragmentation within faculties (ibid.).

The authors stated that the intervention by their research and development group was followed in all cases by improved informal communication. Often this involved more task orientation in informal conversations with peers and efforts to include faculty members outside pre-existing social groups. It might therefore be expected that interpersonal relationships between faculty at Montview three years later would be characterized by minimal conflict and maximal cooperation. Part of the data section is devoted to intra-faculty relationships in which this expectation is examined.

Power in Interpersonal Relationships

To promote more genuine relationships in supervisory encounters, Zeichner (1980a:35) claimed that it was necessary to change power relationships in the direction of greater collaboration. In an article about Lethbridge University student teacher supervision, Lowe (1982: 43) stated that the supervisory manner of some faculty members negated their stated aim of helping students to develop their own philosophy of education. Students tended to feel powerless in the relationship and to teach the way they believed the professor would approve, rather than the way they wished to teach. Lowe has been both an education student and a cooperating teacher at Lethbridge University.

McIntyre and Norris (1980:68) carried out a survey of several facets of field experience in the United States and Canada. They found that students typically had little input into the design of evaluation forms and even less into their own evaluations.

At Montview, the philosophical stance taken in the elementary program is an integration of the humanistic and the behavioristic (Learning to Teach—A Shared Responsibility, 1981:3). It is not entirely clear how a behavioristic stance, with its overtones of determinism and control, fits with the parallel emphasis on concern for the student as a person and the expectation that the student's feeling of autonomy will increase (ibid.:4). It might also be argued that the statement in the foreword concerning the philosophical basis: "It is expected that all persons involved will value this basis, and respond accordingly" (ibid.:no page), actually reduces the power of some participants, especially those to whom the concept of behaviorism is anathema.

In the actual student teaching triad, the faculty advisor and cooperating teacher often unite against the student, seeking 'dyadic balance,' according to Yee (1971). He placed the responsibility for initiating action to improve triadic interaction with the university advisor. Another solution for this type of problem was the subject of the first study in the next section.

How to Improve Relationships

In an attempt to avoid the unequal power distribution in student teaching triads, doctoral students were used as faculty advisors at the University of California, Los Angeles. Maxey (1982) reported that the objectives included the training of reflective teachers rather than mere apprentices (see also Zeichner, 1980b), and the dissemination by doctoral students of recent research to the teachers in the schools. Most of those involved expressed approval of the principle. However, interpersonal conflicts, inadequate advisor training and severe overloading all combined to reduce the project's chance of success.

An example of poor interpersonal skills was cited by Funk, Hoffman, Keithly and Long (1982) in a report of cooperating teachers' experience with student teaching. The teachers who were surveyed claimed that faculty supervisors tended to arrange cooperating teacher/faculty advisor conferences to suit their own timetables and therefore to imply that their time was more valuable than that of the teachers. A general conclusion was that there was a need for advisor training in leadership, public relations and listening skills.

Interpersonal Relationships at Montview

Interpersonal relationship training is accorded special recognition in the Montview program. Two facets of the program are especially important in this regard. The Off-Campus Residential Experience (O.C.R.E., see Chapter 2) Handbook states "The success of O.C.R.E. depends on your involvement and ability to work with others" (O.C.R.E. Student Resource Manual, undated, no page). Writing of

O.C.R.E., it was stated (IV, 1982:16):

> There is a concentration on interpersonal sensitivity. . . . The general atmosphere of caring and sharing among faculty eventually spread like an epidemic among the students.

Another article (XVI, 1982:14) stated that "Two modules held off-campus [O.C.R.E.] concentrate on the development of interpersonal sensitivity."

Referring to the Internship Seminar held for third year students and their cooperating teachers, a guest leader wrote:

> The participants were 'natural teams' engaged in an ongoing collaborative enterprise. . . . Their experiences were shared. . . . The staff (my colleagues) worked well together. There was a minimum of confusion and out-of-context conflict. (X, 1980:50)

As described in Chapter 2, the structures for promoting good interpersonal relationships are in place at Montview. Faculty members in general value good interpersonal relationships. In the data section below, the perceptions of faculty and some of the people with whom faculty relate are presented.

Data and Interpretations

This section has been divided into three parts. These deal with relationships between faculty and students, faculty and cooperating teachers, and relationships within the faculty.

Faculty-Student Relationships

This section was somewhat arbitrarily divided into two areas.

Good relationships. Many faculty members appeared to genuinely care about all aspects of the development of the students. The researcher observed many examples of extremely open communication between faculty members and students in classes, at O.C.R.E., at the Internship Seminar, at meetings and casually around the Education building. Two students who had transferred into Montview from other institutions remarked on the informality of staff-student relationships at Montview, compared with what they saw at their previous universities. Two important features were also noted.

First, the openness of communication did not seem to be confined to any particular faculty group, although there were naturally personality differences in the ability to enter into informal relationships. Second, the informality seen by the researcher did not appear to be associated with any lack of respect for faculty members. Staff members tended to value this kind of relationship, as the following comments illustrate:

> My pre-interns spend one hour every Tuesday afternoon in this office with me [advisor/advisee meetings—see Chapter 2]. We talk about things I don't think are in the program . . . With another, we talked about the impact of her relationship with a young man. I want them to know me well enough that we can talk about that. (8, faculty member)
>
> The relationship is a strength if it's a trust relationship which continues after the field through Fourth Year. I have one now with a personal problem. She's in Fourth Year. I had her as a pre-intern [Second Year]. She was able to talk. I think she'll be all right. (14, faculty member)
>
> You sometimes need didactic teaching. [But] if the relationship is good, binding statements are not as negative. (83, faculty member)

It may seem that there is a danger inherent in lay persons assuming a psychological counselling role in situations like those described in the first two excerpts above. This is probably true. However, none of the students with whom the researcher spoke made any negative comment about this part of the advisors' role.

Students made many positive comments about faculty in interpersonal relationships. Following are several typical examples.

> Some profs talked above our level of understanding. Especially one. We talked to the advisor about it and then talked to her. She now tries to talk at our level and gives more applications of the theory. (23, pre-intern, rather hyper-critical)

> ________ [name] was critical, yet he always gave me praise which made me feel good about myself. (Intern questionnaire)

> Angel in time of need. (Intern questionnaire)

> Most beneficial was the moral support and encouragement provided during difficult times. (Intern questionnaire)

> A rock. Really glad to have him there. (Intern questionnaire)

> On behalf of the group, I'd like to say, I thought you were always neutral. You were a friend, but distant enough. When you saw the group developing, you didn't force us. We went with the flow. You didn't make us go to the dance. (Statement by a pre-intern to instructor after Fall O.C.R.E.)

The feelings expressed by this student were typical of many of the students in her section. The researcher heard nothing but high praise for this faculty member. It was therefore quite surprising to hear, some time later, some very different types of comments about the same person. Some of these are presented in the following section.

Relationships causing concern.

> I've never been spoken to like that in all my years of schooling. For a month, I couldn't stand that class. That incident is always going to be there. . . . Quite a bit after, he admitted he blows too easily. (12, mature age pre-intern, referring to an incident which took place in a second year class)

Another student who witnessed the outburst referred to above, said:

> We had empathy for ________ [instructor's name]. But he didn't try to rectify it afterwards. I think he felt bad about it after. He should have apologized, especially as he talks of sensitivity. (17, pre-intern)

In a later interview, the same student claimed that:

> Section ___ is playing games, it's a very bad atmosphere. Few people are prepared to express feelings. It stems from the earlier blow-up between ________and ________.

Recounting another incident which occurred during a course planning meeting involving both faculty and students, a faculty member said:

> There were students on it. But they had no say--as soon as one of the students wanted to make a constructive criticism, either one of the leaders would not give the students a chance to say what they wanted to say. They would just pounce and say "Well, this is it." (18, faculty member)

It would be unrealistic to suggest that such incidents should never occur, or that they signify a deep-seated malaise in the program. When the workloads of Pre-internship students and faculty members are considered, it is perhaps surprising that clashes occur so infrequently. Nevertheless, it is probably desirable that faculty members who are involved in teaching conflict resolution skills try to model those skills wherever possible.

There were other perceived problems with relationships between faculty members and students. One was the problem of advisor changes between students' second and third years.

> Relationships which were carefully built between advisors and students in the Pre-intern Year [Second] may be disrupted if as interns they elect to go to widely separated schools. (91, sessional instructor, advisor)

Clearly, this problem could be solved by a change in intern placement policy, but while this could also tend to reduce faculty workload, it would violate a principle of student choice of area for Internship placement.

Another type of problem stems from a possibly too rigid application of clinical supervision, especially the notion of avoiding unsolicited feedback. Many students expressed a wish for this.

> He's helpful . . . but he gave no general comments. It's frustrating because he didn't say good job/bad job. (12, pre-intern)

> She uses clinical supervision. In the post-conference she uses data and her own comments. I like that. (89, pre-intern)

Students who have difficulty relating to their cooperating teachers sometimes feel impotent to deal with the situation. Specifically, they fear that faculty members will not take steps to provide them with a different cooperating teacher.

> Many are complaining about where they are, but are too afraid to say, in case they are not shifted, and the cooperating teacher gets to hear they complained. (57, pre-intern)

Although this fear is almost certainly quite unfounded, the difficulty of achieving a change of cooperating teacher seems to be real. A faculty member stated that:

> _______ [name] was very reluctant to make cooperating teacher changes. (50, faculty member, referring to a previous coordinator of professional development)

A cooperating teacher told the researcher about a student who had a problem in relating to her cooperating teacher (a different teacher). The student reportedly spent the whole Internship Seminar crying, but when she approached her advisor for assistance, she was told to either endure the situation, or get out. The advisor allegedly did not visit the school to check the situation. The cooperating teacher claimed:

> If we [cooperating teachers] have problems, the university is very supportive. But it's not so for students. The student part is not taken in anything. (5, cooperating teacher of an intern)

The present coordinator of professional development outlined the problem from his perspective. He has a very limited number of cooperating teachers available. If he alienates even one of them, he may well lose a whole school. He must therefore move very carefully in cases of this kind, and the natural tendency is to leave situations alone and hope for spontaneous improvement. Although several respondents spoke of the importance of matching students and cooperating teachers, none offered a solution. One possible improvement might be to formally declare the first week of Internship as a probationary period, and to require the student and his or her cooperating teacher to examine their relationship on the first Friday of the Internship. Pairs who believed there was little hope of achieving a working relationship could then be dissolved, and a second attempt made to place the students from the dissolved pairs.

The following section focuses on relationships between faculty members and cooperating teachers.

Faculty-Cooperating Teacher Relationships

All faculty members who responded to the values questionnaire believed that relationships between faculty and cooperating teachers were of moderate (five) or crucial (seventeen) importance.

In interviews and Internship questionnaires, positive comments about these relationships were much more common than negative comments. A small representative sample of each group is presented below, beginning with two negative comments.

> Too often the faculty advisor gets too involved with student assessment. There is often pressure to pass an inadequate student. (11, a very experienced cooperating teacher who was actually quite happy with the present faculty advisor, but was drawing on a past experience of advisor/teacher clashes)

> There were times when arrangements had been made for the advisor to come, but she did not show up—and did not have the courtesy to telephone and explain. (Cooperating teacher questionnaire response)

This latter problem was discussed at a faculty advisor/ cooperating teacher meeting. It was suggested by the program manager that teachers insist on advance notice. Advisors were asked to fit into school timetables, and give advance notice of visits.

Far more frequent were cases of comments which either claimed that relationships in general were good, or gave specific examples illustrating a good relationship.

> I think if we've done nothing else with this program, the cooperating teachers are beginning to realize they're part of a team. (51, faculty member)

> We had a major problem about not putting people [students] into kindergarten classes. We took the problem to them [faculty] and they listened and fixed it. (5, cooperating teacher)

> I felt she [advisor] was a sort of colleague. She's the kind of person who introduces herself as ________ ________, not Dr. ________. (13, cooperating teacher)

> I'm pleased with the present advisor. He's very supportive. (Questionnaire response from cooperating teacher)

> Our faculty advisor was interested, organized and showed up when she said she would. I'm impressed! (Questionnaire response from cooperating teacher)

To return to an earlier comment, although there appears to be a majority of good to excellent faculty/teacher relationships, even a small minority of poor relationships can eventually damage the entire program. The suggestions reported earlier for improving faculty advisor quality are worth consideration in this specific aspect of advisor quality.

Intra-Faculty Relationships

It would be naive to expect any group of several dozen intelligent adults to be free of conflict. When all members of the group are asked to work in an innovative program designed by only a subset of the group, the probability of conflict becomes higher. If the philosophical assumptions of the new program run counter to those of some of the group, conflict becomes nearly inevitable. There is conflict at Montview.

One respondent saw the situation as providing an adaptive mechanism within the faculty.

> There is a dynamic tension between the traditional people versus ________, ________ and ________ [names]. Many education profs are concerned about this, but it may be healthy. (86, representative of School Trustees' Association)

Most people, however, expressed some degree of concern. There appeared to be two main foci of this concern. One involved resentment felt by individuals against what they saw as a neglect of their point of view. The second focus of concern involved the reported existence of two factions on faculty, characterized by one faculty member as Team A/Team B.

Individual resentment.

> I went to three meetings and I pulled out. One of the leaders was "Greg." I mean, he's got very fixed ideas and he pushes things through. "Harry" was open to discussion, but with "Greg," he would just say, "that's the way it is," so you don't discuss it. "Jill" and "Bev" and I all pulled out at the same time for the same reason. (False names used) (18, faculty member)

The researcher observed this 'juggernaut' effect in action and is able to understand the reaction of another faculty member who said ruefully:

> We need someone to stand up to "Greg." He hasn't always got the right answers. (90, faculty member)

A different perspective on this kind of problem was offered by a faculty member who had worked on committees with "Greg."

> Sometimes, you get very strenuous debates but you walk away still believing in each other that we can work this out and stay together as a team. Unfortunately, there are other people who come in and they feel that they're being steam-rolled and that their perspective is not counted . . . or they don't get a hearing, and they back off then. (62, faculty member)

This is the kind of situation which appears to an outsider to be easy to solve. Basically, all that needs to happen is for the aggrieved parties to be more persistent in expressing their opinions and the other party to become more aware of others' opinions and their potential value. However, both long-term resentments and long-term aggressive discussion habits may be difficult to change. Perhaps a commitment by all parties to gradual change and an application of conflict resolution strategies as taught at Internship Seminars will eventually resolve these types of conflicts and restore harmonious faculty relationships.

Team A and Team B.

> It seems that issues get muddied by what I call Team A and Team B . . . It does exist. I make no bones about it . . . One team is pro the elementary program thrust, the direction it's trying to go. And then there's another team not particularly interested in the thrust and who are supposedly interested in what is called academics. (83, faculty member)

Thus did a respondent crystallize for the researcher a growing conviction that there appeared to be two factions in the faculty. After exploring the idea with the above respondent to clarify his perception of the nature of the focus, other respondents were questioned about their perceptions of the factions.

> The camps are still here, but they're much smaller and there's a much larger group in the middle. Now it's important to understand that some people feel about the program the way they do because they were or are members of those camps. I'm in the middle. . . . People are just being torn apart. So some of the rhetoric is of an emotional camp position, rather than a thoughtful view of what we do. (8, faculty member)

> I see things leaning that way sometimes. "We academics have to get these professionals." But there's much overlap between groups. The problem is that it creates inane animosities and blocks to communication. (31, faculty member who claimed to be typecast as an 'academic' team member)

> I see people that feel that the field component in the program is vital and strong and needs to be integrated with what goes on here . . . The other faction I see as not seeing the value of that, . . . and [they see] those that are involved with it [the field] not of academic quality. (14, faculty member, advisor)

> A group has had meetings off-campus to plan strategies—how to vote. They withdraw from team participation, from advisor roles, micro-teaching participation. (51, faculty member, advisor)

Some of the above perceptions may illustrate what a respondent described as:

> There are some people who see villains everywhere they want to look. (8, faculty member)

Irrespective of reality, however, the fact that these beliefs exist may be important. It is probably difficult for someone who sees himself as a Team A member to fully trust or even communicate freely with a person seen to belong to Team B.

This is a deep-rooted problem and one which most likely reduces the efficiency of the faculty's attempt to achieve its goals. To even begin to address the problem, faculty members would have to initiate genuine communication with people whose assumptions about teacher education are quite different from their own. The quality of communication would have to be different from that now extant. When a faculty member was asked if the two factions spoke to each other, the response was: "You bet. They play the greatest hypocritical games you've ever seen" (14).

There is one characteristic of the faculty which gives rise to hope for a beginning to the solution of the Team A/Team B problem. This is the strong commitment of some faculty members to the use of communication skills and techniques for conflict resolution. This would appear to be an ideal opportunity for these skills to be put into practice.

Summary

In this chapter, some issues involving the faculty have been discussed. They included the question of faculty workload and the related question of the quality of the work done by the faculty. This was followed by a brief examination of the role of some faculty members as innovators. Finally, relationships involving the faculty both as an organization and as individuals were studied. Several specific areas of concern were identified. These may repay closer attention by faculty members. The following chapter focuses on several aspects of the student experience in the Elementary Practicum at Montview University.

Chapter 6

STUDENTS AND COOPERATING TEACHERS

In this chapter the final six issues are addressed. Three issues concern cooperating teachers. First, the recruitment, training and quality of cooperating teachers are surveyed, and this is followed by a brief examination of the vexing question of cooperating teachers as socializing agents for students. The third issue concerns interpersonal relationships between cooperating teachers and students. This completes the study of relationships, which was begun in Chapter 5.

The three specifically student-related issues concern their possible roles as change agents in schools, their selection for teacher training and the significance of the Practicum in this selection, and the concept of developmental stages in the Practicum.

Cooperating Teachers, Their Recruitment, Training and Quality

This issue was regarded as crucial by sixteen faculty members, as moderately important by six and as trivial by none.

The Literature

> The role of the cooperating teacher is fraught with ambiguities. Is he or she to be a formative influence, or the guardian of the gates to professionalism, charged with the sacred duty of screening out the unfit? Is he or she to be an equal status partner in the practicum, or a supervisor paid on a piecework basis? Is the instruction of student teachers a contribution to the teachers' own professional development, or simply a duty mandated by law? (Gillis, 1981:11)

Recruitment

The type of cooperating teachers recruited will largely depend on the way the questions posed in the above extract are answered. It may be that much of the expressed dissatisfaction with the work done by cooperating teachers is related to the frequent absence of clear specification of cooperating teacher roles.

Benham (1979) pointed out that three conferences on Teacher Education and Professional Standards held in 1961 had recommended that training institutions screen potential cooperating teachers and recruit only master teachers. He claimed that, by 1978, little or nothing had been done. At least part of the explanation for this lack of action may lie in the ambiguity of the term 'master teacher.'

Writing of cooperating teachers, Hopkins (1982) claimed that their role was at once the practicum's greatest strength and its greatest weakness. He gave no guidelines for recruiting teachers to enhance the strength of the practicum.

In Theory to Practice (1981:36) recommendations were made to guide the recruitment of cooperating teachers for Alberta universities. These included selection on the basis of "excellence in teaching and their ability to teach teachers." Annual recommendations from schools and administrators plus at least a four year Education degree and permanent certification were also to be required.

In the Montview context, recommendations were made (IX, 1981:21) to increase the pool of cooperating teachers to allow an extension of student school experience into Fourth Year. Again, no concrete suggestions were made about how this might be done. This was a significant oversight in view of the special qualities such teachers would need to have, in order to provide sophisticated school experience for Fourth Year students.

Cooperating Teacher Training

Writers in the field tended to express a strong but rather uncritical faith in the ability of colleges of education to improve cooperating teacher performance by the provision of some kind of training.

Thies-Sprinthall (1980:17-20) found that some teachers who were low on conceptual level and moral principled thinking made inaccurate subjective ratings of students. She argued for training to solve this problem. Seiferth and Solliday (1980) discovered that little time was devoted to teacher-student conferencing after the first few weeks of practica and called for teacher in-service to remedy this. Theory to Practice (1981:37) included supervision skills training in the list of recommendations aimed at recognizing the importance of cooperating teachers. A visiting leader to the Montview Internship Seminar wrote (X, 1980) that the Seminar provided a growth experience for cooperating teachers. This was a reference to the training in clinical supervision skills offered at the Seminar.

In a study on the skills and traits cooperating teachers expected of students, Applegate and Lasley (1982) found unrealistic expectations in some areas. The recommendation made was for more careful briefing of teachers by universities.

Most of the above recommendations for more and better training seem to be intuitively sensible. Perhaps this inherent rationality might be cause for pessimism about the usefulness of university training for cooperating teachers. Many teacher training institutions would probably claim that they already provided adequate training for cooperating teachers. An important question might be 'Why is the training provided not resulting in behavior change?'

Cooperating Teacher Quality

In a 1966 paper on responsibility for student teaching (Who's in Charge Here?, 1966) certification of cooperating teachers was recommended as a method to ensure good supervision. No criteria for certification were given.

Involvement of some cooperating teachers in a 'directed studies' university course was claimed to have enhanced teacher relationships with students and also to have provided students with a 'better' experience during the practicum (Hopkins, 1982a). However, it is possible that a Hawthorne effect was operating and that the improved experience for teacher and student may be attributable to the dyad's involvement in a university research project. Further, it could be argued that cooperating teachers who enrolled in extra university work may be systematically different from those who rejected the opportunity. They may well have provided a better experience for their students without engaging in the 'directed studies.' Finally, the group consisted of only four pairs of teachers and students. Clearly more work needs to be done before attempts are made to generalize from this experience.

In fact, the literature provides little help in conceptualizing the role of the cooperating teacher, in how to recruit, and in how to train these people. In the data section below, the views of faculty, students and the teachers themselves are examined.

Data

Although the sections interact, the data have been divided for convenience into recruitment, training and quality of cooperating teachers.

Recruitment of Cooperating Teachers

There is quite serious concern that the task of finding good, willing cooperating teachers is becoming harder all the time. Some fear that the pool of acceptable teachers is drying up.

> The concern is that we're going to run out of schools one day. (18, faculty member)

On the shortage of cooperating teachers one teacher said:

> Unfortunately, more teachers don't offer their classes. Some teachers feel very insecure about having a student in with them. (11, very secure cooperating teacher)

Although the faculty attempts to avoid pressuring teachers to take students, this inevitably happens, usually with negative outcomes for both student and teacher, but not always:

> Last year, my teacher didn't want me, but she told me at the end that she really appreciated the experience. She'd had a bad student before. (10, pre-intern, mature age)

The method of recruiting teachers is as follows:

> Superintendents ask principals to invite teachers to take students. The principals screen them, the superintendents screen them, the university screens them. Still 3-5% or more end up with terrible experiences. (76, principal, very committed to the new program)

Usually this screening process seems to work well, at least from the teacher's point of view:

> We were asked by the principal in June (for September Practicum). It wasn't forced on us. We were told we had to have one more division one teacher. I didn't mind, I didn't need them, but I was comfortable. (70, cooperating teacher)

Interestingly, at the same school another teacher told quite a different story:

> It kind of got nasty here. They made a mistake in Montview. A teacher here got upset. . . . There was pressure brought to bear to take pre-interns. (13, cooperating teacher)

A first year student expressed his conviction about the only possible basis for recruitment. He recounted a story of a friend who:

> Had a very bad experience. The teacher said 'Hey, I don't want you here.' . . . It's got to be on a volunteer basis. (19)

Solutions to the problems were of two main types. Some people saw the problems vanishing as more graduates of the new program moved into schools. There are already some new program graduates in schools and their students usually appreciate their grasp of the new program.

> She was just super. She's been through the program and really stuck to everything to a T. Sometimes it seemed like a pain, but it was good for me. (61, fourth year student)

The drawback to this solution is that most new graduates must seek positions outside Montview, as very few vacancies occur in the city for new graduates. Thus, it may be many years before many pre-interns are able to be placed in the classrooms of new program graduates.

The other sort of solution offered involved dismantling the rather complex faculty-superintendent-principal-teacher communication chain.

> It's going through the board that's part of the problem, in that rapport is not built up between us and schools. (22, faculty member)

A teacher who had taken students in her classroom for fifteen consecutive years made a similar comment, but another teacher in the same school said:

> You need the superintendent and principal involved. If _______ [coordinator of professional development] went direct to the teachers, he wouldn't get teacher support. (2, cooperating teacher)

Recruitment of sufficient numbers of satisfactory cooperating teachers is a serious problem at present, but it only directly affects the small group of faculty members charged with finding enough good teachers to accept students. It may be argued that as long as sufficient numbers of cooperating teachers continue to be recruited, there is no cause for concern. However, three aspects of the situation may combine to make the foregoing a short-sighted approach:

1. Overall student numbers may well continue to grow in the foreseeable future.

2. If any type of fourth year school practice is introduced, more cooperating teachers will be required.

3. There may well come a time when some of the teachers who have taken students for many years actually withdraw their services, rather than just talk about it.

Careful consideration of the various options open to the faculty (including several suggestions discussed in the workload section of Chapter 5) may well be worthwhile. This would be better done before, rather than after, some students are left without a school in which to practise their teaching.

Training of Cooperating Teachers

There was serious disagreement on the question of the adequacy of cooperating teacher training. Some teachers claimed that it was done quite adequately:

> I wouldn't want any more. I think if a person is taking an intern for the first time, it's O.K. (5, cooperating teacher of an intern, commenting on the Internship Seminar she had attended)

> Yes, it was well done. There was the meeting at the beginning. We were shown the evaluation form and told what was expected. We never had to say 'Hey, what's going on?' (55, cooperating teacher of a pre-intern, commenting on the preliminary dinner meeting)

Others claimed that their preparation was not adequate, or was of the wrong kind. One who missed the pre-intern cooperating teacher dinner meeting was concerned that she was not prepared to complete the data sheets on the student's lessons. The researcher attended one of these dinner meetings and noted the wealth of material covered in quite a short time. A parenthetical note made by the researcher during the meeting read:

> At this level [second year student school experience] not so detailed an approach to Clinical Supervision is taken. Much less detailed on helping relationship and indirectness.

This was a comparison by the researcher with the Internship Seminar at which teachers and interns had spent nearly twenty hours together discussing and practising Clinical Supervision and the 'helping relationship.' The faculty faces a dilemma here. Insufficient cooperating teacher training reduces the quality of the feedback available to the student and leaves the teachers anxious about their role. Too much training engenders resentment at wasted time:

> The lecture was too long at the workshop. (11, cooperating teacher referring to the dinner meeting)

> The dinner meeting ran on too long. (24, cooperating teacher)

Each of the two respondents above suggested an improvement on the training provided for pre-intern cooperating teachers. They both would have preferred a brief introduction followed by an extended period of group work with mixed 'old hands' and 'greenhorns.' In the groups, modelling of the skills required by cooperating teachers would take place.

Even with the highly structured and much longer Internship Seminar, opinions about the efficacy of the training were divided.

By far the majority of teachers were very happy with the training provided. The comment below was by no means atypical:

> It was extremely valuable in that we learned or reviewed important communication skills . . . (Questionnaire response)

However, there was a minority of quite dissatisfied participants.

> . . . I found the last day to be a waste of time and an insult to my intelligence. (Part of a questionnaire response, which had earlier included some quite positive statements about the rest of the Seminar)

> The longer seminar was much too long. (Questionnaire response)

> . . . But the rest of the "group therapy" type of activities were totally unnecessary. (Questionnaire response)

A careful analysis of the fifty one teacher questionnaires returned from the Fall 1982 Internship may prove worthwhile. It may not be thought desirable to change the format of the Seminar. However, awareness by all Seminar leaders of the types of criticisms made, may itself be a factor in reducing future criticism.

Cooperating Teacher Quality

In a program with a chronic shortage of cooperating teachers, it is not surprising that there is some dissatisfaction expressed concerning some of the teachers used. The student opinion surveys carried out in 1979 and 1980 by the Montview evaluation unit (II, 1979;

III, 1980) showed that the help received from cooperating teachers was rated more highly than that from advisors. Given the relative durations of teacher and advisor contact with students, this is not surprising. The 1980 survey showed that cooperating teachers had moved ahead of advisors in perceived helpfulness. This was taken as evidence that the cooperating teacher training was having a positive effect and the report suggested that advisor training was needed.

The second year Program Manager had an interesting theory about cooperating teachers' skill at providing feedback.

> I bet you we'll get about 60% teachers giving adequate feedback, frequent enough and descriptive, the way we want, plus their own non-descriptive feedback. I think if we raised that to 70 or 75%, that would be as good as we could do. I think if we tried to tighten up, the people who are already enthusiastic and conscientious would overdo it and we'd get the 'nervous wreck' syndrome.

Many students commented very favorably on their teachers' skill at giving feedback.

> He gives very good feedback, not too critical, tries to get our enthusiasm going, leaves us to make our big mistakes next year. (27, pre-intern)

> He's been through the program. Knows what's required. He's super in giving feedback, gives it in positive ways. (12, pre-intern)

> He always writes helpful comments and he gives remedial feedback. It's specific. (72, pre-intern)

Students also commented on their appreciation of less specific forms of feedback.

> She gives me hints on what I should do for the lesson. She tells me the good things and the bad things I do, so next time through I'll do better. She encourages ideas from the university. (73, pre-intern)

One cooperating teacher who impressed the researcher with his evident sincerity and keenness to continue learning, even after many years teaching, provoked quite disparate comments from each of his two paired pre-interns.

> I'd like more help with my lesson plans and more ideas. He says "It's your lesson." (16, pre-intern, who was experiencing some difficulties with class management)

> He's most helpful, an all-round good person. Although he's the authority in the room, he turns around and is a pussy-cat with the kids. Good to see this compared with last year's cooperating teacher. (10, pre-intern, mature age, confident and competent)

This pair of responses underlines the importance of matching pre-interns who are to be paired with one cooperating teacher. The same point was made earlier in a comment by another cooperating teacher.

Teachers in the Montview schools were quite open about the existence of some cooperating teachers who should not be taking students.

> Being a volunteer program, it's hard to get around it. Who'd do the screening? There's teachers here who shouldn't be on. (49, cooperating teacher)

> We're not professional enough to screen our own teachers well enough. Rotten apples are keeping good young ones out. (2, cooperating teacher)

Some teachers appeared to have been coerced into taking students.

> It's like I was forced on him. . . . He couldn't relate to what I was doing. . . . He was trying to turn me off teaching altogether. (71, fourth year student)

> She made me feel I was a real burden. (61, fourth year student)

> She wasn't really prepared. She didn't really want a student in there. (41, first year student)

The above student respondents had survived the rather negative experiences they reported. It is entirely possible that some other students who could have become excellent teachers gave up and left the education program because of such experiences.

There were some students who perceived that their cooperating teachers had ulterior motives for accepting students.

> He's helpful, but lately he's getting a bit lazy. I'm taking almost 100% of classes, therefore I'm not learning from watching him. (48, intern commenting towards the middle of the Internship. There is an expectation that competent interns will be teaching nearly full loads by the end of the Internship.)

> I've known other teachers to phone up for an intern just because they want a holiday. Some give full days almost from the start. (61, fourth year student)

Still other teachers appeared unaware of the requirements for giving feedback, or unwilling to adhere to them.

> Mine doesn't really focus on professional targets. She goes over general things. (26, pre-intern)

> We have some teachers again who take interns and either knowingly or unknowingly say "I'll do it my way." They give students feedback "That was a good lesson." (33, faculty member)

This may not be very surprising in the light of the fact that some faculty advisors take the same approach.

It is without doubt true that there are many more good and excellent cooperating teachers than mediocre and poor ones. Nevertheless, it still appears to be important to reduce poor experiences caused by unwilling, unaware or incompetent cooperating teachers to an absolute minimum. The solution may lie in a comment made by a faculty member:

> I think it's a very serious issue. Students have raised it, teachers have raised it, faculty members have raised it. It's something that isn't discussed. (22)

It is of course a very sensitive issue for teachers. However, many teachers have acknowledged its crucial importance. If it could be arranged that the Teachers' Federation raised the problem as an issue to be dealt with, the emotional nature of the problem could be greatly reduced. This may be a fruitful area for some clandestine interorganizational communication.

Socialization

In a teacher education context, the word socialization is frequently used in a pejorative sense. In a paper dealing with the structure and supervision of teaching practica, Friesen (1982) wrote:

> Perhaps the underlying assumption of this paper is that the teaching practicum is often a "static exercise in demonstration of the established way" because of the supervision provided by faculty supervisors and cooperating teachers.

A more reasoned viewpoint may be that socialization is a process which may be used or abused. In the literature which follows, most authors have assumed, often without justification, that socialization is inherently undesirable. However, some work is cited in which socialization may appear in a rather different light.

The Literature

Canadian anglophone teacher educators tended to rate themselves highly on their ability to produce teachers able to fit into existing school systems, that is,to socialize students to maintain the status quo. They gave themselves low ratings on the task of producing analytic graduates able to bring about change in schools (Wideen, Hopkins and Fullan, 1980:26). Hopkins (1982:9) noted that several studies had shown a relationship between the teaching styles of students and their cooperating teachers. Copeland (1979) demonstrated that skills which are brought to the practicum by the intern are extinguished unless accepted and practised by the cooperating teacher.

Perhaps the best known example of student teacher socialization is the widely cited 'liberal to conservative' attitude change which has often been shown to occur during school experience. This has been generally attributed to the socializing influence of cooperating teachers. In a 1981 paper, Zeichner and Tabachnik offered two plausible alternative explanations. They cited some evidence to support the view that the student teacher's liberal views were only a veneer to cover his basic conservatism developed over many years of 'apprenticeship of observation' in classrooms as a child. When he entered a classroom as a teacher or student teacher, the underlying conservatism merely manifested itself again.

In another possible explanation for the liberal to conservative trend, the faculty's role was interpreted as actively promoting conservative attitudes. It has been argued that, although education faculty instructors preach liberal attitudes and reward students for writing papers expressing liberal views, they model conservative attitudes to the students in their instruction and behavior. The modelling, it was argued, was more effective than the rhetoric.

The importance of faculty actions relative to their words was also stressed in Theory to Practice (1981:46) and in a Secondary Task Force Report at Montview (XV, 1980:92). In the latter work, the need was stressed for students to see a variety of methods modelled.

In a survey of eighteen students, Gibson (1976) found a rapid move from the notion of teaching as 'service' to school practice as a time for 'safety and survival.' To ensure a pass in school practice, most students followed the cooperating teachers' methods. Only five of the eighteen achieved an 'independent perspective,' with greater faith in their own judgement, and a return to a child-centred perspective.

Zimpher, deVoss and Nott (1980) stated that one of the tasks for which faculty advisors were essential was the prevention of too rapid socialization of students. This, they claimed, often occurred when cooperating teachers pushed students into teaching too rapidly without time for reflection. A similar point was made by McCabe (1979), writing of newly graduated teachers. He claimed that teachers typically adapted to their schools in less than two weeks, but that this too-rapid socialization inhibited later professional growth and led to stagnation several years later.

Zeichner (1980b) argued that it was possible to inoculate students against socialization by teaching them to become reflective about their experiences. This could be done by attendance at a series of seminars. However, some work done at Montview (IX, 1981) suggested that students rated seminar activities very low on a scale of potential post-internship activities.

The induction of teachers (or students) into new skills by the process of coaching (Joyce and Showers, 1982) might be seen as a very powerful method of socializing (for details of the process, see Chapter 4). It also illustrates the point made in the introduction to this section. Coaching might be used to socialize students into outmoded inappropriate teaching methods by teachers who have stagnated ever since their own graduation. It could just as easily be used by progressive, enthusiastic teachers to socialize students into skills and strategies emerging from recent careful research on teaching.

At the risk of overemphasizing this point, there may even be a danger inherent in the attitude of some teachers that all socialization is undesirable. Taken to extremes, this attitude could lead to some students being left without advice and guidance by teachers who were overly concerned to avoid being seen to socialize their students.

In the data section which follows, an exploration of the range of attitudes to this issue is undertaken.

Data

Of twenty two responses to the values questionnaire item 'Cooperating Teachers as Socializing Agents,' only eight saw this as a crucial issue. Thirteen regarded it as moderately important, and one as trivial. This relatively low rating may reflect a belief held by faculty that teachers in general do not pressure students to adopt traditional teaching strategies. It is also possible that the low rating might be attributed to a faculty belief that socialization is a necessary element of teacher education programs.

The pre-intern program manager was asked if she felt that students planned lessons to cater to the perceived wishes of their advisors and cooperating teachers. In her answer, she used the expression 'provisional try' which appears to be a very important concept at Montview. She said:

> I would say that's decreasing, because as advisors and EdGen instructors we are encouraging students to develop their own style and going for it, really pushing for self-development. We want them to give a provisional try and a couple of provisional practices; then to identify some things they want to do.

A very pessimistic approach was taken by another faculty member:

> Much of what we do about original methodology just fizzles away [after the first year of teaching]. What we do might last two or three years and then the school atmosphere will be so imposing. (46, faculty member, not involved in supervision)

Socialization during teaching practice at Montview does occur, in the sense that students present lessons to suit the perceived wishes of the observer. Two qualifications need to be made. First, the extent to which the student ignores his own beliefs about how a lesson should be taught in order to pander to the observer's beliefs obviously varies interactively with the personalities of student and observer. Second, if students are really 'locked in' to fixed teacher behavior patterns by the 'apprenticeship of observation' from their own years as school pupils, as described by Zeichner and Tabachnik (1981), the whole discussion of socialization during teaching practice becomes a non-issue. Any concerns about socialization would need to change their focus to that earlier period.

Some students perceived their freedom to try their own or university ideas to be limited:

> You have to accept the cooperating teacher's point of view. If they think you should do it differently, they'll cut you down. (78, pre-intern)

> It's a natural thing to hold back, and not be yourself, because it's his classroom. (12, pre-intern, mature age)

Illustrating the importance of differences in cooperating teacher personality traits were the responses of two pre-interns interviewed together who said:

> Oh yes, it definitely happens. (17) and
>
> No, not to me, but I've always had very flexible teachers, both here and Lethbridge. (80)

The majority of respondents believed that they had a great deal of freedom. Typical of their comments were:

> I can do whatever I want. I'm not too far out. (74, pre-intern)
>
> She lets me innovate if I want to. (25, intern)
>
> Not so far [in answer to my question about any evidence of socialization]. Maybe because I've got a young with-it teacher. (56, pre-intern)

Several teachers actively rejected any suggestion that they might restrict their students' choice of methods.

> She wanted me to tell her how to motivate. I told her that's your ballgame. The principal agreed too. (13, cooperating teacher of a pre-intern)
>
> I want them to say 'We would like to try this.' I'd rather see them do their own thing. (55, pre-intern cooperating teacher)
>
> I tell her the concept, she goes from there. I let her make her own mistakes, e.g., a hyper kid got away with insolence and broke up her class. I forgot it—she dwelt on it. It really upset her week. (81, pre-intern cooperating teacher)

A faculty member stressed the importance of the student's attitude, while acknowledging that sometimes the situation is beyond the student's control.

> The onus is very much on the intern. In the last four years students coming in are game enough to ask questions. . . . One principal fought it all the way [the principle of provisional tries]. So for the student in that school, it was a disaster. The student quickly modified his behavior to suit that principal. (93)

An interesting example of the attitudes of a student and her teacher toward socialization is presented below:

> I know if I do something he doesn't like, it'll leave a negative impression. He does encourage me to try different teaching styles. He knows, and I know I need to try different things and different styles. (79, very conscientious intern, lacking self-confidence)

Her cooperating teacher said of her:

> She's quite strong, she still relies a lot on what I have to say. But I didn't cooperate with her. After a time, that sank in. (38)

There were many examples given to the researcher of cooperating teachers who clearly understood the concept of socialization and made strenuous efforts to encourage students to try out their own ideas. There were also still some teachers who definitely believed that school practice should be a period of apprenticeship during which students should model their teaching as closely as possible on the cooperating teachers' own teaching. The notion of the 'provisional try' discussed above, if promulgated widely and strongly enough, may reduce the size of the latter group.

Cooperating Teacher-Student Relationships

This discussion of the interpersonal relationships between students and their cooperating teachers completes the set of four groups of interpersonal relationships begun in Chapter 5. Of all the issues identified by faculty members, this one was rated as most important by a clear margin. No faculty members rated it as a trivial issue, one (not involved in field supervision) as moderately important, and the other twenty two as an issue of crucial importance to the Practicum.

The Literature

Very little literature was found which addressed the general issue of interpersonal relationships in teacher education. Most authors instead described specific teacher education programs featuring what they claimed were good interpersonal relationships.

Three of the articles dealt with aspects of the Montview University Internship Seminar. The deliberate attempt to foster positive interpersonal relationships between cooperating teachers and interns at the Internship Seminar was described thus (IV, 1982:17):

> Early in the internship semester the intern-cooperating teacher pair attend a four and a half day residential seminar designed to develop an effective working relationship within the pair and to further develop supervision skills.

While many cooperating teachers are prepared to attend the Internship Seminar each time they have an intern in their classrooms, some feel that one seminar is enough. This problem has been identified (XIII, 1976:11) and an attempt to solve it made by running shorter seminars (ibid.).

Evidence of the effectiveness of the seminars in enhancing intern-cooperating teacher relationships was provided by a study carried out by a school administrator who had acted as a seminar leader (XVII, 1979:66). She used the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory to measure empathy and congruence for two groups of student-cooperating teacher pairs. The pairs in one group did not attend the seminar. The pairs in the other group did. Measurements were made before the seminar, shortly after it, and again several weeks later.

The teachers who attended the seminar had significantly higher change scores on the empathy scale than those teachers who had not attended. The significant change was that between the pre-seminar measurement and the first post-seminar measurement.

Mokosch (1979), cited in Friesen (1982), studied the seminar at Lethbridge University and found it to be instrumental in promoting a good supervisor-intern relationship.

Two reportedly successful attempts to improve interpersonal relationships in internships have been mentioned in earlier chapters. Davis and Davis (1977) used written contracts to improve the supervisory relationships between teachers and interns. Hopkins (1982a) noted that the participation of cooperating teachers in 'directed studies' enhanced their collaboration with students. Hopkins suggested that this may have been attributable to the fact that both members of the pairs were learners, the student learning to teach, and the teacher studying aspects of professional development and the practicum itself.

A recommendation for reducing the probability of cooperating teachers antagonizing students while giving feedback about lessons was made by Johnson (1978). She recommended the use of clinical supervision and argued that the focus on objective data reduced the chance that the fragile student-cooperating teacher relationship would be damaged, as she claimed often occurred in the more judgemental modes of providing feedback.

The process of coaching described in Chapter 4 requires good interpersonal relationships. The one essential prerequisite for successful coaching, according to Joyce and Showers (1982), was a close, trusting relationship between the learner and another person. According to Berliner, if a change in teacher behavior is desired, there is "no substitute for what Bruce Joyce calls 'coaching'" (Brandt, 1982:12).

If Berliner's enthusiasm is not misplaced, the relationships between students and their cooperating teachers are important indeed. The data section below includes some general remarks about teacher-student relationships. There is also a section dealing with some perceptions of the role of the seminar and one dealing with the usefulness of clinical supervision.

Data

General Comments

The President of Montview University was impressed with the potential of the Practicum for developing close relationships between supervisor, cooperating teacher and intern. He suggested that:

> There may be a Hawthorne Effect in terms of the individual attention and coaching and mentoring he gets in the Practicum. . . . I don't use Hawthorne Effect in a pejorative way. The effect is real. People like attention. (6)

As can be deduced from the 96% of faculty members who labelled this issue as crucial, there is an awareness of the need to promote good relationships between teachers and students. During a discussion about a student-cooperating teacher pair who were not working well together, one faculty member told the student's advisor of the steps he had taken to remedy the situation:

> I told "Jenny" [cooperating teacher] to tell "Wilma" [the student] that she seems defensive. To describe Wilma's behavior rather than labelling her. (32, faculty member, group leader of several advisors) (false names used)

Though many positive comments were made by teachers to the researcher regarding the maturity of the Montview students, this viewpoint was not unanimous. Referring to the preparedness of his students (a pair from Section E, in which students undertook school experience in pairs), a cooperating teacher who had not previously taken students in his twenty four years' of teaching said:

> They're academically well-prepared. Not so good with human relations, the pre-intern with pupils; the pre-intern with the staff. (49, cooperating teacher with two pre-interns, one of whom was having classroom management problems. This student felt unable to approach his advisor with these problems, which may testify to his underdeveloped human relations skills. The advisor was a very human, kindly person.)

The students referred to in the two comments above were pre-interns. They had not yet, therefore, attended the Internship Seminar where they will, with their cooperating teachers, receive training in conflict resolution and communication skills. Reference was made above to an increase in empathy exhibited by cooperating teachers after attendance at the Seminar (XVII, 1979). An argument was made by several teachers and faculty members for a brief seminar-type experience for all pre-interns and their cooperating teachers before second year school experience begins. Concentrated training in communication skills and conflict resolution strategies might well enhance the school experience of pre-interns and allow the Internship Seminar to deal with more sophisticated skills. It would, of course, also be extremely costly, if run on the lines of the Internship Seminar.

A much less expensive, albeit perhaps less effective strategy was suggested by several pre-interns and some pre-intern cooperating teachers. This was to allow pre-interns to visit their prospective classes for several consecutive days of familiarization before beginning to teach. This would allow them to learn the expectations of their teachers (and vice versa) and to begin to build relationships with school personnel without the added stress of having to teach two lessons per day.

The Internship Seminar

Opinions about the Seminar tended to be polarized. Far more people were very enthusiastic about its potential for developing relationships than were concerned about its alleged uselessness or potential for negative results. A sample of enthusiastic comments is given below:

> I believe so strongly that the Internship Seminar develops the relationship between the two of you that I would not allow an intern and teacher to start without it. (Cooperating teacher, internship questionnaire response)

> Teachers and interns who go to the Seminar know more about each other in that one week than the pair who didn't go know in the whole sixteen weeks. (33, faculty member, advisor)

> It acquainted ________ and I and helped us to develop a friendly, working relationship. (Intern questionnaire response)

The following negative comments about the Seminar were not common, but even if only a few teachers hold these attitudes, quite considerable damage can be done to the Seminar.

> Some teachers have heard it's only a week-long drunk, and refuse to go out there. (84, a school administrator who was himself very enthusiastic about the Seminar)

Another teacher who attended the Seminar was very incensed by what he interpreted as a request from his group leader to downplay the stories about drinking at the Seminar.

A principal who attended a Seminar stated that there had been some quite serious side-effects of the relationship-building which had occurred at his Seminar:

> I think some people can't handle that emotionally—young interns and some socially unstable teachers. I know of at least two that summer whose home life was seriously disrupted because of the Seminar and one later. Night-owling involves a few basic things—drinking and things that go with it. (87, principal)

Clinical Supervision

A different type of problem associated with the building of close relationships was identified by a school administrator:

> You get to know people very well that week. It's hard then to have to fail a person. (84, school administrator)

This problem was addressed by a principal who is working on a clinical supervision manual for principals to help them supervise newly graduated teachers. His attitude was that if a principal-teacher relationship is good enough, and if a concentrated effort has been made to improve the teacher's skills using clinical supervision, the teacher who has not achieved a satisfactory standard will be quite well aware of this, long before the supervisor has to tell him. The principle probably also holds for cooperating teachers and interns. The better the relationship, the less likely is a poor teaching grade to come as a shock to the intern. One of the strengths of clinical supervision was said to be its concentration on objective data and avoidance of personal and potentially hurtful statements (Johnson, 1978). Almost all the interns responding to the Fall 1982 Internship Questionnaire stated that it was a very valuable supervisory technique. It was therefore surprising to find that in the interviews conducted with interns and their cooperating teachers, many members of each group had significant reservations about its usefulness and practicality. It is possible that, although the questionnaires were anonymous, they were administered by the Faculty of Education, and as such, respondents may have been reluctant to respond as freely as to oral questions posed by an outsider (the researcher).

Many teacher-student pairs appeared to be modifying clinical supervision so much that it has become unrecognizable:

> I use it a bit. Not much pre-conferencing. She [teacher] gets there just before school. I ask for specific data, but she comments on everything. I don't really mind. (28, pre-intern)

> No, not formal. He's very personal. There's not much pre-conferencing. Much more post-conferencing. (39, pre-intern)

Many other students and teachers and some faculty members stated that they de-emphasized the pre-conference segment. Another large group stated that clinical supervision was useful early in the Practicum, but was not needed as much, or even at all, later in the Practicum.

> I used it for the first six weeks. As times goes on, and the lesson procedure becomes more internalized, I didn't see the need to do it as much. (38, cooperating teacher of an intern)

Comments like this suggest that clinical supervision is seen mainly as a technique for remediating poor teaching. Its potential for making good teaching better does not appear to be fully realized.

Some respondents actually blamed clinical supervision for damaging interpersonal relationships.

> I've heard the cooperating teacher say 'Migosh I wish this pre-intern would leave me alone in coffee break. I want to be relaxing. Pre-conference gets to be the whole coffee-break and post-conference after school.' (68, faculty member)

> In using the clinical model, students can dominate and keep you away from their weaker areas. It can be quite difficult to get back to the area of needs. (84, school administrator)

There is clearly a good deal of misunderstanding about the use of clinical supervision in student supervision. Its potential for helping students to improve their teaching, and for doing so in a non-threatening way is so great, however, that it would seem desirable to continue efforts to promote its use in student supervision at Montview. At the same time, faculty members need to be aware of the practical problems involved in its use, extending even to threats to relationships as mentioned above. There is available a very down-to-earth account of the successes and failures of a small Australian task force assisting a number of schools to implement clinical supervision among staff members (Smyth, Henry, Marcus, Logan and Meadows, 1982). Many of the problems faced in Montview have been addressed by this group and are discussed in the paper. There may be some suggestions in the paper which could be tried at Montview.

Students as Change Agents

This issue received the highest number of trivial ratings (five) of all the issues and the second lowest number of crucial ratings (six). Twelve faculty members saw it as an issue of moderate importance. The issue as presented to faculty for rating was 'students as change agents in schools, during and after training.' The above ratings are of interest in the light of the fact that Montview faculty believed that they did not effectively prepare teachers who can implement change in schools (The Management of Change in Teacher Education, 1979).

The Literature

The literature examines some perceptions held by people about the present situation, both at Montview and elsewhere. This is followed by some suggested strategies for producing students who are able to go into schools and act as agents for change.

The Present Situation

In 1971, 37% of Canadian anglophone teacher training institutions offered courses in 'Innovation Processes' while a further 14% were planning to offer such courses (Channon, 1971).

About a decade later, Canadian teacher educators were aware that they were not producing teachers "capable of analyzing critically the schools and bringing about change" (Wideen, Hopkins and Fullan, 1980: 26). They claimed that they wished to do so. Two possible reasons for this state of affairs were discussed in articles written in the United States at about the same time. Benham (1979:14) stated that "teacher education expends more energy on what is, rather than what ought to be." Zimpher, deVoss and Nott (1980) commented on the very natural conservatism in student teachers who know that they must satisfy a cooperating teacher's expectations to receive a pass grade. They said (ibid.:14):

> In any case, trying to encourage student teachers to take a risk, to teach creatively or experimentally, which may be the supervisor's ultimate contribution, was a difficult task.

At Montview, there is a formal commitment to the production of students able to act as change agents. In their intern manual "Learning to Teach—A Shared Responsibility" (1981:8) is stated:

> The University expects that students will initiate new ideas and be problem solvers. This requires a cooperating teacher who is secure enough to allow the intern to try new ideas.

In a report prepared for the Joint Committee on Field Experiences (XIII, 1976:1) two major purposes of the teacher education program at Montview were identified. The second was "to prepare teachers with the intellectual, technical and personal resources to provide direction and service in the future."

However, in a recent Montview report (XIV, 1981) the writer stated that very little was done to prepare students to innovate. This may reflect the fact that overall, the Montview faculty did not value the preparation of teachers to implement change in schools as highly as the average Canadian education faculty (The Management of Change in Teacher Education, 1979:7).

Developing Innovative Students

Much of the literature in this area consists of general normative statements. Discussing the role of teacher education in educational change, Joyce and Weil (1972:4) stated that "teacher education is, in a real sense, the midwife of educational change." They listed four roles of the teacher including "the innovator resisting the 'slide into routine' that tempts everyone" (ibid.:11).

The possibility of change initiation being a two-way process was suggested in the Elementary Education Practicum Handbook (Phase II/III, 1981:9) at another Canadian university:

> Education practicum programs should provide a channel through which ideas may flow which may improve both the Cooperating School Systems and the Faculty of Education.

More specific advice about how to produce teachers who could initiate change was provided by Zeichner (1980b:27) who stated that "transformation can only come from the collective action of those who are first reflective." He described a system of seminars in which reflective teaching was to be promoted.

To bring about permanent change in a teacher's set of pedagogical skills, Joyce and Showers (1982) suggested the use of 'coaching.' The concept has been described in some detail in an earlier chapter. While it is unlikely that a student engaging in school experience would be in a position to coach the teachers in the school, it seems important to provide the student with the skill for use after graduation.

Data

No negative comments were made in any interview about the concept of students bringing new ideas into schools during the Practicum. One cooperating teacher of an intern did emphasize that she would need to be very convinced of the superiority of any new reading scheme before she would permit her intern to use it. This seems to be an eminently reasonable attitude. Several students reported feeling that deviation from their teachers' methods would not be welcomed (see earlier section on Socialization).

In a very informal, unofficial way, new methods of teaching are being taken into the schools.

> He made no attempt to influence me. He's said he hopes to learn from me. (10, pre-intern student whose cooperating teacher had taught for over twenty years and had never before had a student teacher in his room)

> My first reaction [to taking a student in my room] was "No way—I'm nicely entrenched in my career." But what turned me on was a chance to refresh my ideas. (49, cooperating teacher of no. 10 above)

> It brings in new ideas. Not always, but especially if they've really grasped the helping thing. For example, ________ [a teacher] has said he's picked up new ideas. I personally changed as a result of having students in the school. (64, principal, rural area)

A rare example of a student being formally asked to act as a change agent for a group of teachers was reported by a faculty member at a Professional Development Committee meeting attended by the researcher. The student, an intern, was asked to give seminars on clinical supervision by the cooperating teachers in a school some distance from Montview. This is an illustration of a process referred to by a Faculty of Education administrator:

> I think there's a spin-off for cooperating teachers. They have to become knowledgeable. I think their level of professionalism is raised considerably. I've heard it so many times. (35)

Another faculty member referred to an effect which she described as 'nebulous,' but nonetheless real:

> When students are in schools, they're talking professional talk. Lots of teachers don't, but students force them into it and in this way may act as change agents. (22)

A quite different position was taken by another member of the faculty who is a change agent of considerable effectiveness. He believes in a more active change agent role for students:

> But usually in the past, a person's got new ideas but hasn't got a - - - - idea what to do about them. All he does is raise havoc, either get mad or frustrated. Get everybody down on his back and that's the typical kind of thing. I'm sure there's keen young people wanting to make changes, but they're getting socialized into the way things are, so I see that as a major issue. . . . Any of the teacher education is lost unless that person knows how to work in the institution. (42)

It seems from the remarks made by students and teachers that the concern expressed by faculty members about this issue might be misplaced. Change is gradually diffusing from the university through students to teachers. It is not a dramatic process, but may be no less effective for that. Attempts to formalize the process and increase the speed of change may even lead to damaged relationships between schools and the Faculty of Education.

The preceding comments notwithstanding, some formal training in how to initiate change is probably justified to allow Montview graduates to effectively initiate change after they begin their teaching careers.

Student Selection

Like many universities, Montview University is experiencing an increase in enrolments without a concomitant increase in funds for expansion. At the same time, a decrease in overall pupil numbers in elementary schools is leading to school closures and a shortage of positions for education graduates. In the face of these demographic trends, the question of selection for teacher training assumes a quite different complexion from the same question a decade ago.

Montview faculty members rated the "Role of the Practicum in 'self-selection' and staff initiated exclusion" as one of the more important issues. Of twenty three respondents, fourteen rated it as a crucial issue and nine as an issue of moderate importance.

The Literature

Introduction

Montview students are expected to use their experiences during the various segments of the Practicum to decide whether or not they wish to continue in the teacher training program. This is referred to as self-selection (XVIII, 1980:6,10; Learning to Teach—A Shared Responsibility, 1981:8). The other two possible methods of controlling entry to the teaching profession involve either some form of screening at entry to the training program, or a mechanism for exclusion of unsatisfactory students during, or at the end of, the training program.

In the normal schools which trained teachers before universities assumed this role, students were excluded if their communication skills were considered to be inadequate (XVI, 1982:1). In a very nihilistic study of the quality of U.S. teacher training, Goodlad and

Klein (1974) claimed that inadequate teacher training was the rule rather than the exception, and that to improve matters, candidates must be selected for, rather than merely admitted to, the teacher education program (Goodlad and Klein, 1974:106). In the following section, the views of several authors about the nature of the problem will be stated, and this will be followed by a survey of some of the numerous ideas for remediating the situation, which have been put forward in the last few years.

The Problem

In a paper which was more relevant in the U.S. than in Canada, Ross, Raines, Cervetti and Dellow (1980) criticized teacher education programs which left teaching practice until late in the program. As they pointed out, this meant that self-selection was seriously delayed. Two papers addressed screening at program entry. Benham (1979) stated that, in spite of a 1961 recommendation that institutions should be highly selective for admission to teacher education, by 1978 nothing had been done. Corrigan (1982) noted the actual lowering of entry criteria in the U.S. to overcome teacher shortages, but stated that there was no evidence that lowered standards attracted more students into education. On the contrary, he claimed, ". . . there is probably more evidence to show that lowering standards drives the best students and best teachers away from teaching as a career" (ibid.:16).

Another type of problem was identified by Gillis (1981:11). She discussed the ambiguous role of the cooperating teacher and asked if:

> He or she [was] to be a formative influence, or the guardian of the gates to professionalism, charged with the sacred duty of screening out the unfit?

Remediation.

Many ideas for improving selection were discovered in the literature search. Not one article, however, was able to show that application of the selection strategy proposed actually improved the quality of the graduates produced.

At Montview University, a battery of tests is given to all EdGen126 students and the results returned to the students for discussion with EdGen126 instructors. "This concept is 'consistent with the Faculty of Education emphasis upon within-program screening as opposed to pre-entrance screening'" (XXI, 1981:2). The Provincial Teachers' Federation has a stated policy of self-selection of candidates both before entry and during the program (Submission to the Task Force on Secondary Education, 1978:Appendix 1). They also supported the principle of 'external screening' or exclusion of students from the faculty. The above policy is applicable to both elementary and secondary teacher training.

Imposed selection, rather than self-selection was the subject of five articles. Wideen, Hopkins and Fullan (1980:26) identified a trend to tighten admission requirements "linked to earlier field experiences" in Canadian teacher education institutions.

The need for selective admission was stressed by Tom (1981) and in Theory to Practice (1981). Tom (1981) argued that there was no need for specific research on this question as it was self-evident that verbal and mathematical literacy were central to the daily tasks of the teacher. In Theory to Practice (1981), several of the personal characteristics required were listed, but no information was given on how to measure these characteristics reliably and validly.

Allen (1977) recommended a one-month course on basic skills for all entrants to be followed by a term of teaching in a school. He claimed that this would sort the competent from the incompetent teacher candidates. He ignored the potential effects on the children taught by incompetent candidates.

At the University of Lethbridge, students who wish to become teachers spend sixty hours in a classroom as a teacher-aide as part of a course called Ed2500 before being formally accepted into the Faculty of Education (Lowe, 1982).

Five more articles raised interesting questions about the issue of selection for teacher training. A study by Heath (1977) showed that students' Scholastic Aptitude Test scores were inversely related to several hundred indices of adult maturity. Assuming that immature teachers are prima facie undesirable, there appears to be a case to be made for the exercise of caution before selecting teacher candidates solely on the basis of scholastic aptitude. Equally provocative was the study by Leith (1982). He found that extroverts received significantly higher grades ($p < .01$) on the final teaching practice than introverts. He also cited evidence that extroverts make better teachers after graduation (Leith, 1982:201).

The preceding two studies might be interpreted as suggesting that only extroverts with grade-point averages around the median should be selected for training as teachers. The work of Twa and Greene (1980) provides a caution against simplistic interpretation of isolated research results. Twa and Green set out to develop prediction equations for performance in student teaching. They used multiple linear regression on six biographical and forty psychological test scores to derive a prediction equation using 141 students completing student teaching in 1974-75. The equations were applied to a later group of 200 students to predict their student teaching grades.

The correlations between actual grades and predicted grades were very low and very few of the variables effective in prediction for the earlier sample were also effective in prediction for the later sample. Twa and Greene made an important general point in a discussion about reasons for the failure of the prediction equation.

Essentially, they observed that the situation had changed in a number of important ways between the times when the two sets of measurements were made. In any organization this is likely to be the case. Attempts to select between candidates for admission to any profession should probably take account of both the changing nature of the pool of applicants and of the profession itself. Given these inevitable changes, it is unlikely that any equation will remain useful for more than a short time.

Harrison (1981) observed that, in Canada, beginning teachers were employed initially for a probationary year. He argued that if this were to be abolished, hiring authorities would have to offer immediate tenure, and Faculties of Education would possibly feel compelled to screen candidates more carefully at entry than is now the case.

Finally, a most interesting longitudinal study is under consideration at Montview. It is planned to focus on students experiencing difficulties with the early parts of school experience and to follow these students through the program and perhaps beyond. This should give a clearer idea of the utility of spending large amounts of faculty time on remediating such students. A similar research program is in place at Chicago State University as part of a 'model approach' to the evaluation of teacher education programs (Dillon and Starkman, 1981).

The data section which follows has been organized into four main sections. These are:

1. Expressions of concern about the quality of students graduating from Montview.
2. Perceptions of the current situation regarding student selection at Montview.
3. Suggestions from people other than students about student selection.
4. Suggestions from students about student selection.

The data section closes with a composite dialogue based on an apparently unworkable suggestion from a student about how to improve selection.

Data

Concerns

Almost every student who was asked about student selection stated a belief that selection standards should be higher. The two comments reproduced here are from two mature-age students, and are somewhat more vehement than most.

> I asked ________ [advisor] does everyone get through? He said some don't make it. Much responsibility is put on the cooperating teacher. There's an awful lot I wouldn't want to teach my kids. . . . There's too many immature, unconcerned teachers. Even this year, I think, my God I can't believe they're going to be a teacher. (10, pre-intern, mature age, two children of his own)

> Lots of the kids are just out of Grade 12. Some are only seventeen. They're very close to their own childhood. Many of their ideas are immature. Should there be more preparation? (60, first year student, mature age, perhaps not fully aware of the potential maturing which can occur during a four year tertiary course)

Staff members were no less concerned.

> I've seen too many people in the program scare the hell out of me. One was psychiatrically ill. No one knew about it. I see interns who use very bad grammar, spelling and expression. The majority can't write, speak and don't even know they're doing it. We've babied them too much in some cases. (20, sessional instructor)

Another faculty member commented on the self-selection rhetoric.

> But I'm not sure why we lose them [students]. I think there's a bit of a readiness to say 'Here we're losing x% because it [self-selection] is doing what we want it to do.' . . . I think a lot of people are withdrawing for a variety of reasons but I don't think it's a deliberate plan to eliminate them. (8, faculty member)

As suggested in an earlier section of this chapter, some potentially excellent students may be withdrawing because of bad experiences with inadequate cooperating teachers.

An advisor on the way back to the university after watching a borderline student teach a lesson said:

> It's not a pass-fail system. It's a pass-pass system. (30, faculty member)

This comment seemed at odds with much of the rhetoric on self-selection. The researcher therefore examined the records for the preceding two years' Internships. In the Fall Internship of 1980 one student withdrew in the sixth week, another in the ninth week and four students were assessed as incomplete. No outright fail grades were awarded. In Fall, 1981, four students were assessed as incomplete, no student withdrew and none was assessed as an outright fail. Several points should be noted. First, some of the students graded incomplete may have failed their make-up teaching round later. At least one did fail. Second, some students graded incomplete and possibly even some passing students may have withdrawn after the final assessment and would therefore not appear on the results list as withdrawn. Third, it might be argued that the high pass rates cited above are the result of effective earlier selection during Second Year. This possibility was checked by an examination of the 1981 EdGen226 class lists. There were three withdrawals, one incomplete, and no fails. Again, some students may have self-selected out of the program after the final assessment. However, it appears that very few students self-select out during teaching rounds, and fewer still are failed on teaching practice.

The Current Situation

Opinions differed about the effectiveness of student selection as it is now practised. One faculty member stated that much of the selection for the teacher education program was actually done by the Arts and Science faculties.

> They [students] do seven Arts/Sciences courses before they come to us in second year. If they're incompetent, the Arts/Science people keep them away from our gates. (3)

Others claimed that selection processes in the Faculty of Education were operating effectively. Typical of these comments was the following:

> We lose about 20% of each intake during the four year course. This tends to counteract the rumour that anyone off the street can be a teacher. (50, faculty member)

A Department of Education officer contrasted this situation with teachers' college days when, he said, "anyone who was warm completed satisfactorily" (67). A teacher claimed that "very few bad ones graduate." She contrasted this with her own training days and suggested that "lots of people teaching now, shouldn't be" (81, cooperating teacher).

In contrast to the above generally positive opinions were the following:

> Education has lower standards [than Arts]. They are too slack. (56, pre-intern)
>
> Some personalities get through who shouldn't. (23, pre-intern)
>
> My students have told me that the one thing to improve the program would be to be more selective. (32, faculty member)

However, another student who had failed her Internship had nothing but praise for the system which had excluded her:

> I was with a really good teacher. Her expectations were too high for me, but not too high. I want to come back next semester. With a different teacher, I would have been all right. But I'm glad I had her, because I want to teach like her. (36, failed intern)

Many positive comments were made concerning the opportunities provided for self-selection in the various phases of the Practicum. Typical of these was the following:

> After second year, I'll sure be able to tell [if I'm suited to teaching]. Without this, I could bluff through four years. (66, first year student)

The situation with regard to student selection might be summarized as follows:

1. Most students appreciate the opportunity provided by school experience for self-selection.

2. Some students withdraw from the education program, during and after school experience rounds, but there is a doubt that all withdrawals result from the self-selection spoken of in the program literature.

3. Very few students are excluded by cooperating teachers or faculty members as a result of unsatisfactory school experience performance.

4. Some staff and students believe that many students who graduate should have been excluded from the program. There is a concern that standards may be too low and that too many students are given the 'benefit of the doubt' at the possible expense of future classes of children in schools.

In the following section, a number of improvements suggested by faculty members and others interested in the program are listed.

To Improve Selection

Faculty at Montview take the problem of selection very seriously and humanely. At a meeting of faculty advisors, close attention was paid to methods of ensuring that evaluation of borderline students was done fairly and openly. Advisors were encouraged to stress that the final assessments of students by their cooperating teachers should be consistent with the specific comments on the evaluation form. The problem of an apparently satisfactory set of comments culminating in a final failing grade was mentioned. Advisors were also asked to remind cooperating teachers that the December Pre-internship evaluation should be done by the teacher with input from the student. A very experienced cooperating teacher later commented to the researcher:

> They should rely more on the cooperating teacher's judgement with no unsolicited interference from the profs. (11)

However, another cooperating teacher said:

> At my last school, we had a very doubtful student. It was left to the university to make the final decision. (69)

The dilemma of deciding when to stop trying to remediate borderline students was mentioned by several faculty members. Predictably, opinion was divided. Some believed in strict academic and pedagogical standards, application of which, they claimed, would raise the quality of the graduates. Other expressed concern about the question of when to give up remediation attempts. "Are we really helping if we carry the student?" (83, faculty member).

The question of how to decide which students were unsuitable for the teaching profession also provoked very diverse solutions. Some argued for simple grade-point average hurdles, both at Grade 12 exit and first year university exit. A Department of Education officer supported the use of a preliminary interview plus aptitude testing, while most people professed faith in the mechanisms now in place.

> I could point to a case where because of that good relationship [with a pre-intern], someone quit. I wasn't going to let her do her internship. She knew that. (8, faculty member)

The researcher observed a discussion between a faculty advisor (Betty) and her group leader (John) about a borderline pre-intern (Bill). (All names were changed.)

John: Is Bill aware of the problems?

Betty: Yes, but he can't do anything about it.

John: Does he see it as a serious problem?

Betty: No.

John: Do you?

Betty: Yes.

John: Then he should know this. Ask Phil [Professional Development Coordinator] for confirmation of your feelings. He [Bill] must know other peoples' perceptions as closely as possible.

Bill was closely supervised and was not able to improve his performance to a satisfactory level. He withdrew from the education program at the Christmas break.

The faculty advisor involved in this case was a sessional instructor who was able to visit all her advisees at least every two weeks, and often every week. She thus became aware of the problems early in the fall term and was able to act quickly. Full-time faculty members are often unable to supervise students this closely and this may explain why some students are able to complete Pre-internship without displaying an acceptable level of skill mastery.

Students' attitudes to selection were generally very similar to faculty attitudes. Some claimed that self-selection was effective. Several mentioned the heavy workload in second year courses as a self-selection device.

> Most of the kids if they're not serious wouldn't stick out the workload. (72, pre-intern)

The majority of students who were questioned were in favor of some kind of subjective assessment of suitability:

> There should be a minimum standard. It can't be strictly GPA. It must be subjective, applied by advisors and cooperating teachers some time during second year. (24, fourth year student)

Others suggested interviews, an essay writing test and tests of grammar. One student who favored the essay and grammar tests said cynically:

> We have a name, Ed. students. 'If ya can't make it in Biol., O.K. go into Education.' (48, intern)

Several students suggested some form of peer selection:

> You could use private peer evaluation. You'd have to justify the reason. (78, pre-intern)

> The profs can only see so much. The students know a lot more about that person's attitude. (72, pre-intern)

Some support for this position was supplied by a set of incidents in which the researcher was involved. A faculty member, perceived by the researcher as quite an astute judge of character, observed that all the male students in his section had good attitudes to the program. Shortly after this, several students from the same section commented to the researcher that one of the male students had a very poor attitude to the program and had been cheating in certain subjects. They claimed that all the section knew of this, but the faculty was unaware of it. (By Christmas, the faculty member mentioned above had become aware of the student's attitude.)

The notion of any form of peer evaluation is unlikely to be received with enthusiasm by faculty members or students, at least initially. While acknowledging that students probably know more about their peers' attitudes to their intended profession than do faculty members, the researcher at first rejected the idea as impractical for many reasons. The student who first suggested the idea was able to dismiss several of these reasons however, and in further discussion with other students and some faculty members, an acceptable model of peer review gradually emerged. In the composite dialogue which follows, some of the objections raised and counters to them are presented. 'Pro' stands for a person arguing for peer evaluation. 'Con' stands for a person arguing the opposing view.

Pro: Peer evaluation of attitude to the teaching profession is worth thinking about.

Con: We don't need peer evaluation. We already have a very good mechanism for self-selection.

Pro: I agree that we have it. But it's not succeeding in getting rid of quite a few students who should never become teachers.

Con: Well, we could always increase the GPA for entry to Education.

Pro: That probably wouldn't get rid of people with a poor attitude to Education, and if Heath is right, raising the GPA required to get into Education would give us lots of immature students (an oversimplification of Heath's work cited earlier).

Con: Well, you couldn't just spring peer evaluation on students already well into their programs.

Pro: I agree that this might raise quite a hue and cry, so we could begin with next year's first year intake, and make quite sure they understood what was ahead of them.

Con: You might reduce first year enrolment numbers quite a bit if you did this.

Pro: You might, but you should ask what sort of students would drop out because of fear of a peer review of their attitude to teaching. On the other hand, you might have a flood of students desperate to enter a program which tried to exclude students who really didn't care much about their future career.

Con: All right, but surely you don't believe that students will give a negative report on their peers if they know that it might get them thrown out?

Pro: Lots of students are already very worried about a few of their peers and the bad effect on the profession if people who really don't care about teaching get into classrooms full time. There's enough poor teachers already. Do you want more? I think if you explain this carefully to the students they'll see the importance of upgrading the profession even if giving poor reports on their peers goes against the grain.

Con: But what about personality clashes? What if, say, I hate John and, just to spite him, I give him a poor report for attitude?

Pro: No one would be excluded on poor reports from only a few peers.

Con: All right then, what if everyone hated John and they all gave him a bad report, even though he was an excellent teacher?

Pro: Do you really believe that a person who clashes with all the people in his class is likely to be a good teacher?

From an initially quite skeptical attitude to the proposal, the researcher gradually came to adopt a much more enthusiastic position. Such a scheme would need very careful preliminary discussion amongst faculty and skillful explanation to all year groups and the Students' Association. However, it may have the potential to further improve the quality of students who graduate from Education at Montview.

Aside from this, it appears that many students and faculty members would welcome somewhat stricter standards applied to student performance in school experience rounds. Most students are probably mature enough to accept that the welfare of school pupils must be given at least as much importance as the right of a student to secure a teaching post. The final value judgement in the question of evaluating potential teachers comes down to a classic decision theory dilemma. By placing the criteria for a school experience pass too low, a number of false positives (poor teachers) will graduate and jeopardize the entire education of many children. By placing the passing criteria too high, some potentially good teachers will fail (false negatives) but a minimum of poor teachers will graduate and the welfare of school children is protected. The setting of the passing criteria is a very important but difficult task and should involve close collaboration between university and schools. There is still a begged question of the relationship between teaching practice grade and eventual teaching competence, but that question is outside the scope of this research.

In the final section, the issue of the stages of development of students during teacher education is briefly addressed.

Student Teaching Stages

This was only regarded as a crucial issue by six faculty members. Twelve saw it as moderately important and five as a trivial issue.

The Literature

In 1977, a survey of student opinions of student teaching was carried out among senior students in ten Canadian universities (Bessai and Edmonds, 1977). In a section on the background to their study, the authors claimed that one of three common student complaints about student teaching was that it lacked sequential development (ibid.:7). There was perceived to be little or no attention paid to the stages of student development.

In a Submission to the Secondary Task Force at Montview (1980) the need for a "broad and varied series of developmental experiences, both on campus and in schools" (ibid.:9) was stressed.

Three stages of teacher development identified by Francis Fuller were discussed by Glickman (1980:176) and Zeichner (1980b:14). The earliest stage is represented by the teacher whose concern is for survival: "Will I make it until tomorrow?" (Glickman, 1980:176). The next stage is typified by concern for the teacher's own pupils, and the final stage by concern for the teacher's school and profession as a whole. Katz (1972) identified four stages of development in teachers, but did not indicate her grounds for so doing. She claimed that some teachers took five or more years after graduation to reach the fourth stage of maturity which involved consideration of abstract questions about education.

Both Fuller and Katz were writing of full-time practising teachers. If their interpretations are accurate, the typical teacher graduates from the training institution with little concern for anything but personal survival in the classroom. If this is the case, training institutions stand condemned for inadequately preparing teachers for the realities and rigors of classroom life. It is however instructive to observe the publication dates of Fuller's and Katz's articles, 1972 and 1970 respectively. During the past ten years the average length of the practicum has increased dramatically. There is some evidence to suggest that extended practica might permit quite different degrees of student development than were hitherto possible.

In an article on enhancing the extended practicum, Hopkins (1982:7) reviewed the work of Tattersall who measured teaching anxiety and professional self-concept in students undergoing an extended period of teaching practice at Simon Fraser University. The results indicated that it took at least nine weeks for permanent reductions in teaching anxiety to occur and twelve weeks for improvements in professional self-concept to appear. With extended practica now the rule in Canadian universities, it is possible that the average Education student graduates beyond the mere survival stage referred to by Fuller.

A deliberate attempt to advance student teachers' ego development, ethicality and locus of control during school experience was made by Glassberg and Sprinthall (1980). Their experimental group members were instructed in the analysis and processing of their own and their peers' teaching. In each of the three areas mentioned above, the experimental group improved significantly, while the control group failed to improve in any of the areas. However, there is a distinct possibility that a Hawthorne effect was operating. The experimental group leader was Glassberg herself, and interesting videotape technology was also used in this group.

A comment made by Hopkins (1982:5) is most apposite in regard to the extended practicum and its effects on graduating teachers:

> It is unfortunate that, in Canada at least, there is not a research tradition associated with teacher education. As a result the knowledge base is patchy and variable in quality.

Now that the extended practicum is widespread if not universal in this country, many of the accepted beliefs about graduating teachers may need to be re-examined. It may well be found that the average stage of development is more advanced than that of graduates ten years ago. On the other hand, if this is not the case, questions might be raised about the justification of the massive costs in time and, in some provinces, money involved in sustaining extended practica without measurable results.

The next section examines some participant perceptions of the concept of stages in teacher training.

The Data

Although this is not seen as one of the more important issues at Montview, there are faculty members who are aware of its potential significance. Speaking of the importance of 'what themes are presented when' one faculty member said:

> [We] try to facilitate the feeling of program, the concept of program, not only for the team [of faculty] but most importantly for the student, and to assess whatever stage of development a student is in at any given time, that is, what his needs are, given the experiences he's had. (37)

This was a reference to the possibility of enhancing a student's development which might be achieved by an advisor who was sensitive to the current stages of development of each of his or her advisees. This faculty member made no specific reference to a stage theory. Another faculty member expounded a four-stage theory. He suggested that teachers may be in one of the following conditions:

1. Unconsciously unskilled
2. Unconsciously skilled
3. Consciously unskilled
4. Consciously skilled. (33)

Clearly, the eventual aim is for all teachers to arrive at stage 4. A healthy stage for student teachers would be consciously unskilled, but developing.

Faculty members also showed an awareness of some of the shortcomings of stage theory. When one was asked by the researcher about the temporal sequence of development in student teachers from self-centred through content-centred to pupil-centred he replied:

> We don't know yet. That's the kind of thing we'd like to be talking about in this study of ________ [faculty member] and I. What does the advisor do about this? (42)

Many advisors, without committing themselves to any specific stage theory, attempted to recognize that there may be considerable variation among students in their level of development. Speaking of the first year (involvement) teaching round, one said:

> The rule of thumb we go by is that the student does what he feels able to do, and is O.K. with the cooperating teacher.

> In involvement, some feel very comfortable and ready to teach lessons, and so they do. (14, faculty member, advisor)

Speaking of a native teacher education program associated with Montview University, one of the program's staff members said:

> The program is developmental. I am a catalyst in helping people develop. (15)

Referring to the students' growing autonomy and the need to promote this, a faculty member stated that:

> There needs to be a fair bit of freedom so people can grow and make decisions. Once we tighten up too much, we decrease the decision-making available to the students. There has to be a point where they're stopping doing what we're telling them to do and that's a healthy thing. (22)

Considerable stress is placed on the use of the Record of Demonstrated Performance. This is a book in which the Second Year (Pre-internship) student is expected to record his or her attempts to master the skills and strategies introduced in EdGen226. The expectation is that students will then take the book with them into Internship.

> Interns are told to take their EdGen226 books with them into Internship. (33, faculty member, speaking at a meeting of field supervisors)
>
> Very few of them do. (30, faculty member, responding to the above comment)

The last comment was supported by remarks by other faculty members, both at the meeting and at other times, and also by comments from many interns. It appears that a potentially useful mechanism for providing continuity of skill development is not being exploited as fully as possible.

One of the sessional instructors acting as an advisor spoke of the stages of development and the progressive changes from the focus on self, to the cooperating teacher, to content, to relationships. This instructor claimed that some students arrived at the stage of a focus on relationships by considering two questions posed by the instructor.

1. How would you like to be a student in this class?
2. How would you like your child to be a student in this class? (20)

This was an attempt to induce students to see situations through other people's eyes. The work of Piaget (Campbell, 1976) suggests that tertiary students should be capable of appreciating the points of view of others. This may well be a strategy worth exploring.

Given the relatively low rating accorded this issue, a large expenditure of time and energy on it may not be justifiable at present. However, it could be identified as an issue to be borne in mind whenever changes are made to the program to enhance other features. It may, at such time, be possible to make minor adjustments which would recognize the importance of promoting student teacher development to maturer stages.

Summary

In this chapter, a number of issues concerning cooperating teachers and students in the Practicum have been addressed. These included the recruitment, training and quality of cooperating teachers, and their potential as socializing agents for the student teachers in their classrooms. Issues focusing on students included their relationships with cooperating teachers, their possible roles as change agents in schools, their selection for teacher education programs and the stages of professional growth through which they pass.

Chapter 7

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter begins with a brief summary of the study. This is followed by a section in which the legitimacy of going beyond the primary focus of the research in this type of study is discussed. A position is taken on this question. This leads to the enunciation of two hypotheses which emerged from the Montview experience, but are believed to hold generally. A brief comment on the interrelatedness of many of the issues considered in the study follows. Reflections on the methodology used and some suggestions for further research complete the formal part of this chapter. A personal statement containing some comments by the researcher about the Montview program concludes the chapter.

Summary

This dissertation took the form of a responsive evaluation of the elementary teacher Practicum at a Canadian university. As responsive evaluation, the orientation of the study was threefold:

1. It was concerned with activities occurring in the program rather than with formally stated objectives.

2. It attempted to respond to the information requirements of the audience.

3. It made reference to different value perspectives present when reporting on the degree of success of elements of the program (Stake, 1975b).

The focus of the evaluation was a set of issues. These were identified in three ways. First, faculty members were asked to name any problem areas they perceived in the Practicum. Second, the researcher was sensitive to any aspects of the Practicum which, while not specifically cited as problem areas by respondents, nevertheless appeared frequently as concerns during interviews. Finally, analysis of documents written by faculty members, school personnel and Teachers' Federation members about the Practicum produced several leads for checking during the interviews and observation.

The list of issues thus generated was circulated to twenty four faculty members for comment and to provide them with an opportunity to add any important issues which had been omitted. The final list of issues selected for detailed examination included issues related to theory-practice integration, the faculty, cooperating teachers and students.

Data about the issues were sought using seven different approaches. These were the use of interviews, questionnaires, observation, document analysis, participant observers' perspectives, a modified judicial evaluation and still photography.

Although the study was naturalistic in methodology, questions of reliability, validity and objectivity were addressed. The work of Guba (1978) on what he called authenticity problems in evaluations was used as a guide.

The data, and the interpretations based on the data, formed the body of the dissertation. Interpretations were supported by selections from four of the seven data sources. The exceptions were participant observers' perspectives which were reserved for possible use as a form of referential adequacy material (see Guba, 1978), the modified judicial evaluation segment which was a free-standing segment on micro-teaching, and photography which was only used in the purely descriptive section in which the structure of the program was described.

In the section which follows, a case will be argued for going beyond the primary foci of this study and generating hypotheses which may have general applicability.

Conclusions

The foci of responsive evaluation studies are sets of issues identified by the audiences of the studies. The conclusions in such studies are embodied in the interpretation sections of each issue. Therefore, a restatement of all the conclusions reached in a responsive evaluation study would be inappropriate.

However, during the collection of the data which are used to shape the interpretations, a great deal of information is inevitably collected which is not directly relevant to the issues identified by the audience.

Some of this information may lead the researcher to speculate about other issues. It seems unfortunate that these developing insights and accumulating understandings are rarely reported.

In an article on policy analysis, Heclo (1972) came to substantially the same conclusion. He deplored the large number of isolated case studies in the field of policy analysis. He did, however, discern a new trend for students of policy to draw out theoretical implications of their case studies. He wrote:

> This however, should not obscure the fact that . . . case studies have been raised to theoretical import rather than being [just] devices of pedagogical convenience or curiosity value. (Heclo, 1972:90)

Although the present study has potential utility for Montview Faculty of Education members as a responsive evaluation, the researcher believes that it is possible to extend the work a further stage. This involves the generation of two very tentative hypotheses for teacher education institutions in general.

It should be clearly understood that what follows is not firmly grounded in carefully documented data in a wide range of teacher education institutions. There was evidence to support the tentative hypotheses at Montview, but verification in other institutions has not been carried out.

What has been done is a form of what Eisner (1976) called "educational connoisseurship and criticism" (ibid.:135). To undertake educational connoisseurship, Eisner stated that it was necessary to be capable of appreciating what was encountered. He defined appreciation as "an awareness and an understanding of what one has experienced" (ibid.:140). To be capable of appreciating anything in this sense, a broad experience in the appropriate domain, here teacher education, is essential. In Appendix 10, the researcher has provided some autobiographical data in an attempt to establish his capacity to appreciate teacher education programs.

Eisner's educational criticism "has three aspects: descriptive, interpretive and evaluative" (ibid.:147). The descriptive aspect of this example of educational criticism appears in the data chapters, and only selected excerpts are repeated in what follows. The interpretive aspect comprises the hypotheses themselves, and the evaluative aspect is located in the discussion section which follows the hypotheses.

The Hypotheses

Two hypotheses are put forward. These probably began to form during reading of the literature about the Montview Practicum, even before arrival in Montview. As time passed, the researcher naturally compared the situation in Montview with the teacher education institution in which he works, with the two institutions where he received his teacher education and with others of which he had read. Nothing in the reflection or reading caused the hypotheses to be rejected. On the contrary, indirect support for them gradually accumulated, as parallels with, and differences from, the situation at Montview were noted.

Hypothesis 1. The Importance of a Key Innovator

If potassium chlorate is placed into an appropriate environment, it will slowly give off oxygen. If more of the substance is added, a little more oxygen is produced, but most of the available oxygen remains locked up, or is given off very slowly. If a little manganese dioxide (a catalyst) is added to the potassium chlorate, however, oxygen is produced at a brisk rate, and continues to be produced until all the potassium chlorate is changed to another substance.

At Montview University in the early 1970's, the environment was highly conducive to change. In a history of the new Elementary Program at Montview (XVI, 1982:20-22) thirteen influences supporting change were identified. One of the influences was an individual on the faculty at Montview who was described as "energetic, knowledgable and visionary" and able to draw about himself "a cadre of faculty who became increasingly dedicated to a new teacher education program" (ibid.:20).

The same person was described in an interview as "an extraordinary, dynamic, persistent individual" (37, faculty member).

It is the contention of the researcher that this individual played the part of a catalyst among the faculty in much the same way as the manganese dioxide stimulated the rapid production of oxygen from the potassium chlorate in the chemical analogue cited above.

Further, it is contended that without such a person in a program, any changes which occur are likely to be small-scale, incremental and slow.

What are the essential traits of such a person? It is instructive to examine the comments made by some of this person's detractors. There were several variations on a theme which is perhaps expressed best by the following comment:

> We need someone to stand up to _______. He hasn't always got the right answers. (90, faculty member)

It is likely that the traits which caused some people to admire this person were the same traits which, expressed in different settings, caused anger and resentment. Perhaps the most significant of these traits was the quality of tenacity or perseverance. In a situation where sustained, single-minded effort was vital to achieve a desired, permanent change in the program, the quality of dogged endurance was absolutely essential. After the desired change had taken place, however, the need for such persistence was much reduced. For example, in faculty meetings, where consensus had to be reached, the same quality could well be seen as counter-productive, and in extreme cases, might well generate considerable resentment among people who believed, rightly or wrongly, that their own points of view had little chance of influencing final decisions.

The first tentative hypothesis, then, states that to accomplish a permanent major change in an educational program in a limited time span, at least one single-minded, energetic, committed individual is needed to initiate the change and to guide the revised program in its early years. It is highly likely that such a person will antagonize some program personnel, but this is a necessary by-product of his or her activity.

If this hypothesis is tested in a wide variety of change situations, and found to hold, the important question then becomes one of how to manage relationships after the new or revised program is in place. One important avenue to explore would be the gradual, deliberate withdrawal of the innovator from his or her earlier, vital position of importance to a much less important position in the institution. This would be a very difficult move for such a person. The researcher has observed two such people in two separate institutions vacillate when the time came to relinquish their leadership positions. In both cases, this led to quite immoderate resentment from some colleagues, in spite of the substantial and lasting contributions made earlier by the innovators.

Hypothesis 2. The Critical Size Hypothesis

Uranium 235 is capable of producing enormous amounts of usable energy. However, there are problems in getting access to this energy. If insufficient U235 is available in one piece, the neutrons responsible for initiating the chain reactions which produce the energy will dissipate ineffectually into the surrounding air. On the other hand, if it can be arranged for a quantity of U235 in excess of its 'critical mass' to be assembled at one location, the result is an awesome explosion similar to the one which destroyed Hiroshima in 1945. Ideally, the amount of U235 permitted to react is very carefully controlled by control rods in a reactor, so as to avoid explosion, but still produce large quantities of usable energy.

It is the researcher's contention that groups of faculty members involved in running programs within teacher education institutions may be seen as analogues, albeit imperfect, of the above nuclear fission model.

In place of mass of U235 are numbers of people. In place of the control rods in a nuclear reactor are the checks and balances in the institution's structure. In place of the production of nuclear energy is some measure of human energy.

It is therefore hypothesized that, in teacher education institutions, the match between the size of the faculty program groups and the organizational structure of the faculty is crucial to the productive functioning of the institution.

Following the fusion analogy a little further, it is argued that very small institutions may never reach 'critical mass' (or sufficient program group size) to become highly productive, no matter what organizational structures they adopt.

Very large program groups, like large nuclear reactors, require very sophisticated control mechanisms and any serious breakdown in control may result in the group 'self-destructing' with the release of large amounts of randomly-directed, unusable energy. Small semi-independent factions may form as a result. These are often too small to be very effective. This may explain the tendency for the formation of small groups within very large institutions which set up potentially excellent pilot programs that never get beyond the pilot stage.

Montview Faculty of Education is offered as an example of an institution whose Elementary Program group (comprising most of the faculty) is presently in a moderately well-balanced condition. It is large enough to be productive, in terms of graduating students who generally appear to be well received by school boards, and in terms of responding to perceived needs by producing new courses which fit within the basic structure of the Elementary Program. It is not so large as to be impossible to organize as a single formal unit. The existence of informal factions (discussed in Chapter 5 as Team A and Team B) within the faculty may point to the need for a review of faculty structure. Indeed, a time of relative stability of faculty numbers may be ideal for the restructuring.

This leads to a more general point. It is more desirable to adjust the systems of controls in an institution before a crisis situation develops than to be forced to react after a crisis occurs. As most teacher education institutions in Canada are now in a no-growth state (if not actually losing staff) it would appear to be desirable to reappraise organizational structures which may have been inappropriate ever since the beginning of the days of expansion of teacher education.

Any changes which lead to a more appropriate balance between size and structure, and thus a more concerted attack on organizational goals, can only be beneficial for teacher education.

Interaction of Issues Identified in the Study

In several places in the data and interpretation chapters, the point was made that the issues discussed were often interrelated. Thus, if one aspect of the program is altered, the effects might be felt in many other aspects of the program. A simple example of this might serve to stress the importance of this interrelatedness. In this example most of the effects are desirable. This may not always be the case.

The issue of student selection was one which attracted widespread agreement on one point. This was that selection should be more stringently applied. Suppose that this were to be done. Some of the effects would be as follows:

1. There would initially be fewer students in the Education Faculty.

2. There would be a smaller average workload for supervisors.

3. The workload would be reduced more than the reduction of numbers would suggest, because some of the weaker students who required a disproportionately large faculty time commitment would be excluded.

4. Unenthusiastic faculty advisors could therefore be released

from supervision duties and the faculty's research and writing output might rise.

5. The remaining advisors would be those who are enthusiastic about supervision, so fewer disenchanted students might result, and fewer students might withdraw.

6. The smaller number of students would require fewer cooperating teachers.

7. Fewer unwilling cooperating teachers would then have to be used and the quality of the school experience might rise.

7a. Alternatively, all cooperating teachers could be retained, but a Fourth Year school experience segment could be initiated.

8. University administration might respond to the initial drop in student numbers by cutting the number of faculty positions in Education.

8a. Alternatively, more students of better quality might be attracted to an Education Faculty with high entry standards and again exacerbate the workload situation.

This chain could be continued at length. A network with a number of branching points may be a more meaningful way of representing the potential futures opened up by one such simple policy change. Enough has been written to indicate the importance of a thoughtful analysis of the possible implications of any contemplated change, no matter how apparently straightforward.

Reflections on the Methodology Used in the Study

Responsive Evaluation

Responsive evaluation appears to be a particularly appropriate means of acquiring a broad understanding of an educational program.

The focus on issues should ensure that aspects of the program seen as important by the people involved in it emerge early in the investigation. The stress placed on process, rather than products, forces the researcher to concentrate his attention on day-to-day activities in the program, rather than merely to examine lists of past achievements. The emphasis on value pluralism continually reminds the researcher that it is possible and legitimate to take different value positions on many issues.

The lack of statistical summaries of features of the program may be a cause of concern to many readers. Without reiterating large sections of Chapter 3, it may be worth once more stating the researcher's belief in the overwhelming importance of extreme cases in distributions which describe humans or the results of human endeavor. For example, the researcher wanted to go beyond the fact that a stated percentage of students claimed that they had received little or no help in professional growth from their advisors.

Data

Some remarks about three of the types of data collected may be pertinent. The use of the 'elite interviewing' technique (Dexter, 1970) seemed to induce respondents to speak freely of their concerns about the program, and of the areas with which they were satisfied. The researcher usually probed several particular areas during the interviews, but this fitted within the framework of elite interviewing. It was interesting to note that several respondents spoke more freely after the tape recorder had been switched off, even though the researcher was obviously taking notes.

The use of photography in Chapter 2 was justified in the methodology section of the dissertation. It is hoped that the photographs not only illustrate some aspects of the program more aptly than could bald prose, but also contribute to the readability of the document.

The researcher was disappointed that economic considerations precluded a full-scale videotaped judicial evaluation. However, the modified judicial evaluation of micro-teaching provided an opportunity for two opposed positions on the subject to be canvassed. The comment on the two cases by a very experienced exponent of micro-teaching from the University of Alberta is a detailed summary of many of the arguments for and against this technique, and could well form the basis of a discussion of what is done at Montview.

The 'for' and 'against' cases themselves might also be used as a form of specially prepared referential adequacy material (Guba, 1978: 66, see Chapter 3 for more detail).

One difficulty experienced by the researcher in reporting the data and interpretations was his strong inclination to couch concluding remarks to each section in normative terms. This tendency was consciously repressed to fit the philosophy of Stake's model: "He promotes internal authority rather than external authority. . . . I

7

2

emphasize the facilitator role more than the deliverer of insights" (Stake, 1975b:36,37).

A more mechanical matter concerned the format of reporting in the three issues chapters. In each case, a short literature review preceded the data and interpretations section. The reason for splitting the literature in this way was to relate it more immediately to the relevant data. An even more intimate link could have been achieved by interweaving literature, data and interpretations. This would have the disadvantage of eliminating the opportunity for readers to scan all the literature about one issue at one time. It would, however, throw the relationship between literature and data into sharper relief than was the case here.

The problem of submitting a single report on an organization which is constantly changing, might be compared with the problem experienced by a press photographer attempting to represent a continuing event by one or two still photographs, in time to go to press. It is quite likely that some parts of the program will have changed by the time this study is delivered to Montview. There appears to be no easy way to overcome this problem. The existence of an internal research group at Montview with plans to continue to carry out research on aspects of the program may provide at least a partial solution.

The next section includes some general and specific areas in which research might with profit be carried out.

Implications for Further Research

Any one of the issues examined might be used as an appropriate point of departure for a research program. No attempt has been made below to suggest research programs appropriate for all the issues addressed in the study.

Instead, some general comments about research into teacher education are made, and then a selection of interesting and significant lines of research is proposed.

Teacher Education Research

Both Hopkins (1982) and Joyce (1981) stated that not enough was known about teacher education. Joyce (1981) recommended that data be collected on innovative teacher education programs to see which innovations are effective and which are ineffective. He did not define what he meant by effective, nor how such research might be carried out, but the point he made is clear. He also argued that at present, not enough was known about education and teacher preparation to "formulate a definite, ideal curriculum" (ibid.:15). Cooley (1982) argued that teacher educators should concentrate on developing a discipline of pedagogy, but again gave little indication of how this might be done, other than to suggest that disciplinary research was inappropriate for teacher educators.

A beginning might be made on such research by making an effort to discover institutions which consistently produced excellent teachers. This would then raise the problem of defining 'excellent teachers' and some compromise definition would have to be agreed upon. Further groups of institutions producing average and poor teachers would need to be identified.

After the groups of institutions had been identified, a detailed scrutiny of their characteristics could be carried out. This might prove to be an area for cooperation between naturalistic and quantitative researchers. Features examined would need to include: size of the institutions, qualifications of faculties, faculty attitudes to selected educational issues, selection and monitoring procedures for students, composition of programs, length of time spent on teaching practice, distribution of time spent on teaching practice, methods used to promote the integration of theory with practice, techniques used by cooperating teachers and advisors, assessment procedures used in courses, unanimity concerning goals among faculty members, and many more. Features suggested by faculty members, students and cooperating teachers as important should also be included.

A pattern of characteristics which discriminated between institutions producing good and poor teachers may or may not emerge. If it did, the next vital step would be to identify one of the 'poor' institutions whose faculty members, students and cooperating teachers were prepared to experiment with changes to their programs. (Willingness to change may be a further variable to be examined in the preceding phase.)

Only if such experimentation improved the quality of the graduates of the program could the researchers conclude that they had probably identified a viable method of improving teacher education. This sort of research would be very costly, very time-consuming, but potentially very valuable.

Specific Research

The longitudinal research being planned at Montview is of great interest. It is planned to follow a cohort of students through their programs, with, according to one respondent (3, faculty member), special attention given to 'borderline' students. It would possibly be instructive to follow the cohort as long as possible into their teaching careers, particularly in the light of the statement by Katz (1970) that some teachers take up to five years to achieve the highest stage of professional development. The implications of the findings of the 'cohort' style of research on selection and monitoring of students during training could be profound.

The work of Wadd (1982) is provocative enough to warrant further research. If educational theory can never 'work,' as he claims, many parts of the current curricula in teacher education institutions are of dubious merit. Any research into Wadd's claim should take account of the recent work of Joyce and Showers (1982) on 'coaching.' This may counter much of Wadd's argument and be able to provide some of Wadd's 'contextual theory' during initial training.

The whole concept of theory-practice integration deserves closer attention. In particular, the actual integrative mechanism in the student requires clarification.

To conclude with a rather sensitive research area, the question of the most desirable combination of intelligence and personality type for training as teachers is of interest. If the work of Heath (1977) and Leith (1982) is combined (see Chapter 6) and the assumption that immature teachers are likely to be ineffective is accepted, selection of moderately intelligent extroverts should improve the quality of the teaching force over a period of time. Apart from the practical problems of candidates learning to fake extroversion on tests and in interviews, the ethical question of selecting candidates on the basis of personality traits is fraught with problems.

Personal Statement about the Montview Practicum

As mentioned above, it was frustrating being unable to make normative statements about aspects of the Montview Practicum in the data chapters. It was equally difficult to avoid making judgemental comments throughout the dissertation. What follows is a brief attempt to outline some of my beliefs about the Elementary Practicum at Montview.

I teach at an Australian university with about the same total number of students as Montview, although many of them are off-campus students. Our own Practicum is quite innovative, especially in its efforts to allow for progressive exposure to teaching situations. We have, however, nothing like the Montview Pre-internship Year with the opportunity available to integrate everything that happens in that year. Nor do we have as extended a period in schools as is now the norm in Canadian universities. I believe that both these features are a source of great strength in the Montview program.

My own source of bias as a teacher educator is a strong liking for field supervision, but I can and do appreciate the desperate need for more and better research on teacher education.

If a global comment is of any significance at all, I believe that the Montview Elementary Practicum is very well designed and is a major influence in the production at Montview of very competent teachers. I suspect that the Special Internship Seminar, combined with the good relationships which exist between faculty members and teachers, contribute to a climate within Montview schools in which the competent graduates may grow to become reflective teachers in the Zeichner (1980b) sense. I was certainly amazed by the level of discussion and argument of many of the teachers I met in the schools and elsewhere.

Use of the Report

With regard to this report, I very much appreciated the opportunity to carry out the study and I am especially grateful for the assistance offered and friendliness exhibited by almost everyone to whom I spoke.

I strongly believe that there is considerable potential utility for the faculty in this report. The potential may or may not be realized. A comment by House is apt:

> What if the evaluator feeds in impartial reports reflecting all interests, and some interests are continually ignored? . . . To that degree, the radical critics of liberalism are correct. Power really decides the issues, and the evaluation is only cosmetic. (House, 1980:187)

While I do not believe this to be the case at Montview, I suspect that there is limited sympathy with naturalistic works such as this one.

One technique for using this type of document was mentioned in Chapter 1. It involves using small audience-significant segments of the report as discussion papers. That kind of use led to a group of school teachers with initial misgivings about a report like this becoming aware of its potential value. (For more details, see Bates, 1981:72,73.)

May I express the hope that the Montview Faculty of Education will continue to grow and develop in research, teaching, supervision and service, and become more widely recognized as a place where events of considerable significance for teacher education take place.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Group A

Adams, Ronald D., James R. Craig, Shirley M. Hord and Gene E. Hall
1981 "Program evaluation and program development in teacher education: A response to Katz et al. (1981)." *Journal of Teacher Education*, 32(5), 21-24.

Allen, R. T.
1977 "And madly teach—to teach." In C. B. Cox and Rhodes Boyson (eds.), *Black Paper*. London: Temple Smith.

Alves, Mariano
1983 Personal communication.

Anderson, D. S.
1974 *New Patterns of Teacher Education and Tasks: The Development of Student Teachers: A Comparative Study of Professional Socialization*. Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.

Andrews, John
1983 "Research in education: Present and future." Paper presented to faculty and students of the Faculty of Education, University of Alberta, February 3, 1983.

Applegate, Jane H. and Thomas J. Lasley
1982 "What cooperating teachers expect from preservice field experience students." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, March, 1982.

Austin, A. G.
1961 *Australian Education 1788-1900: Church, State and Public Education in Colonial Australia*. Melbourne: Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons.

Bates, Richard J
1982 "Towards a critical practice of educational administration." Paper prepared for the annual conference of the American Educational Research Association, New York, March, 1982.

Bates, Richard J., Eric Braithwaite, David Jenkins and Peter Taft
1981 *Beginnings: Grovedale Technical High School*. Geelong, Australia: Deakin University Printery.

Baugher, Jacob I.
1931 *Organization and Administration of Practice Teaching in Privately Endowed Colleges of Liberal Arts*. Contributions to Education No. 487. New York: Teachers' College, Columbia University.

Becker, Howard S.
1979 "Do photographs tell the truth?" In Thomas D. Cook and Charles S. Reichardt (eds.), *Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Evaluation Research*. London: Sage Publications.

Benham, B. J.
1979 "Teacher training: The futile 135 year search for a fool proof formula." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, April, 1979.

Berliner, David C.
1969 *Microteaching and the Technical Skills Approach to Teacher Training*. Technical Report No. 8. Stanford, California: School of Education, Stanford University.

1982 "Viewing the teacher as a manager of decision." *Educational Digest*, 47(6), 20-23.

Bogdan, Robert C. and Sari Knopp Biklen.
1982 *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theory and Methods*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Bowman, Novy.
1979 "College supervision of student teaching: A time to reconsider." *Journal of Teacher Education*, 30(3), 29-30.

Brandt, Ron
1982 "On improving teacher effectiveness: A conversation with David Berliner." *Educational Leadership*, 40(1), 12-15.

Brophy, Jere E.
1979 "Teacher behaviour and student learning." *Educational Leadership*, 37(1), 33-38.

Brown, W. B., M. Naslund and N. Dederick
1967 "Los Angeles city schools: Partners in teacher education." In L. E. Kraft and J. P. Casey (eds.), *Roles in Off-Campus Student Teaching*. Champaign, Illinois: Stipes Publishing Company.

Burger, Mary Louise and Elizabeth Gorman
1978 "Field-based experiences in rhythmic expression." *Music Educators' Journal*, 64(9), 61-63.

Campbell, Sarah F. (ed.)
1976 *Piaget Sampler: An Introduction to Jean Piaget through His Own Words*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Carr, Wilfred
1980 "The gap between theory and practice." Journal of Further and Higher Education, 4(1), 60-69.

Channon, Geraldine
1971 "Trends in teacher preparation curricula in Canada." Paper presented at annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, February, 1971

Clark, Christopher M.
1979 "Five faces of research on teaching." Educational Leadership, 37(1).

Clarke, S. C. T. and H. T. Coutts
1972 "The future of teacher education." The Canadian Administrator, 11(8), 29-33.

Codd, John
1981 "Educational evaluation: Concept and approaches." In Organizational Evaluation in Schools. Deakin University Open Campus Program. Geelong, Australia: Deakin University Printery.

Conant, James B.
1963 The Education of American Teachers. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Cook, Thelma Sharp and Arthur J. More
1979 "We do what is necessary to make it a success." Northern Teacher Education Program. Case study for MEGI, IMTEC, Manchester, England, December 16-20, 1979.

Cooley, William W.
1982 "President's column." Educational Researcher, 11(8), 21,30.

Cooper, James H. and B. Dell Felder
1980 "Needed: Systematic evaluation of teacher education programs." Action in Teacher Education, 2(3), 17-23.

Copeland, W. D.
1979 "Student teachers and cooperating teachers: An ecological relationship." Theory into Practice, 18(3), 194-199.

Corrigan, Dean
1982 "Curriculum issues in the preparation of teachers." Address delivered at the World Assembly of the International Council on Education for Teaching, Rome, Italy, July, 1982.

Culbertson, Jack A.
1981 "Three epistemologies and the study of educational administration." UCEA Review, 22(1), 1-6.

Davis, Jon K. and Kathryn W. Davis
1977 "Maximizing positive student-teaching supervisory relationships through performance contracting." College Student Journal, 11(2), 193-196.

Dexter, Lewis A.
1970 Elite and Specialized Interviewing. Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University Press.

Dickie, B. T.
1973-1981 Personal communications. Being comments from student teachers, cooperating teachers and principals over a nine year period.

Dillon, J. T. and Stanley S. Starkman
1981 "A 'model' approach to evaluation of teacher education programs." Education, 101(4), 366-371.

Donovan, George F. (ed.)
1964 College and University: Inter-institutional Cooperation. Proceedings of the Workshop on College and University Inter-institutional Cooperation, conducted at Catholic University of America under the auspices of the director of workshops, June 11-22, 1964.

Doyle, Walter and Gerald A. Ponder
1977 "The practicality ethic in teacher decision-making." Interchange, 8(3), 1-12.

Ebel, Robert.
1982 "The future of educational research." Educational Researcher, 11(8), 18-19.

Eisner, E.
1976 "Educational connoisseurship and criticism: Their form and functions in educational evaluation." Journal of Aesthetic Education, 10(3-4), 135-150.

Elementary Education Practicum Handbook for Phases II and III, Student Teachers, Cooperating Teachers, Faculty Representatives and Faculty Consultants
1981 Edmonton: Faculty of Education, University of Alberta.

Elliott, Peggy G. and Robert E. Mays
1979 Early Field Experiences in Teacher Education. Phi Delta Kappan Fastback No. 125. Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa.

Ellzey, Mary
1982 "Evaluation of the linkages between community mental health centres and local school districts." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, March, 1982.

Evans, Norman
1978 "Practice partnership." Times Educational Supplement, 3281(21), May 26.

Everhart, Robert B.
1977 "Between stranger and friend: Some consequences of 'long term' fieldwork in schools." American Educational Research Journal, 14(1), 1-15.

Eysenck, Hans Jurgen
1970 The Structure of Human Personality (3d ed.). London: Methuen.

Faculty of Education, Montview University.
1978 B.Ed. Degree—Elementary. Information sheet for students. Montview University.

Ferguson, Peter
1982 Letters. A series of letters from Peter Ferguson at Deakin University to the researcher at the University of Alberta.

Friesen, David W.
1982 "Synthesis paper: The structure and supervision of the developmental teaching practicum." Unpublished M.Ed. paper.

Funk, Fanchon F., Jeffrey L. Hoffman, Anne M. Keithley and Bruce E. Long
1982 "Student teaching program: Feedback from supervising teachers." The Clearing House, 55(7), 319-321.

Gallagher, Richard E.
1976 "Responsive evaluation: A personal reaction." Studies in Educational Evaluation, 2(1), 33-34.

Gehrke, Nathalie J.
1981 "A grounded theory study of beginning teachers' role personalization through reference group relations." Journal of Teacher Education, 32(6), 34-38.

Gibson, Rex
1976 "The effect of school practice: The development of student perspectives." British Journal of Teacher Education, 2(3), 241-250.

Gilliss, Geraldine Channon
1981 "Teacher education—today and tomorrow." Teacher Education, No. 19(October), 6-23.

Glaser, Barney G. and Anselm L. Strauss
1967 The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company.

Glass, Gene V. and Frederick S. Ellett Jr.
1980 "Evaluation research." Annual Review of Psychology, 31, 211-228.

Glassberg, Sally and Norman A. Sprinthall
1980 "Student teaching: A developmental approach." Journal of Teacher Education, 31(2), 31-38.

Glickman, Carl D.
1980 "The developmental approach to supervision." Educational Leadership, 38(2), 178-180.

Goodlad, J. and F. Klein
1974 Looking Behind the Classroom Door. Worthington, Ohio: Jones.

Greenfield, T. B.
1982 Seminar given in the Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta, December 3, 1982.

Guba, Egon G.
1978 Toward a Methodology of Naturalistic Inquiry in Educational Evaluation. Los Angeles: Center for the Study of Evaluation, University of California.

1981a "Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries." Educational Communication and Technology: A Journal of Theory, Research and Development, 29(2), 75-91.

1981b "The paradigm revolution in inquiry: Implications for vocational research and development." Paper presented at the National Center for Research in Vocational Education, Staff Development Seminar, Columbus, Ohio, 1981.

Harris, Roger
1972 "The supervisory roles of school and college in facilitating teacher competence." In British Government White Paper, "Education: A Framework for Expansion."

Harrison, Keith
1981 "Termination of teachers' contracts." Canadian School Executive, 1(4), 24-28.

Heath, D.
1977 Maturity and Competence. New York: Gardner.

Heath, J. E., I. M. Lambert and J. L. Stibbs (eds.)
1974 The School and the Student Teacher. Derby: Professional Association of Teachers.

Heclo, H. Hugh
1972 "Review article: Policy analysis." British Journal of Political Science, 2, 83-108.

Hendrickson, Leslie
1982 "Evaluation Research Society outlines program evaluation standards: Guidelines toward excellence." Division H Newletter, American Educational Research Association, 8(1), 1-2,7.

Hopkins, David
1979 "Institutional development, responsive evaluation and the problem of change in teacher education." Paper presented at the British Educational Research Association Conference, Brunel University, September 4, 1979. (Revised version)

1980 "The role of the practicum in bridging the gap between school and university." Paper presented at the Western Canadian Association for Student Teaching (Wescast) Conference, Edmonton, Alberta, March 13, 1980. (Revised version)

1981 "It is true what they say about theory and practice." Paper presented at the Western Canadian Association for Student Teaching Conference, Vancouver, March 13, 1981.

1982a "Enhancing the extended practicum." A research report prepared for professional programs, Faculty of Education, Simon Fraser University.

1982b "The problem of change in Canadian teacher education." The Canadian Journal of Higher Education, 12(2), 17-31.

Horowitz, Myer
1971 "Of carnations . . . and children." Elements, 3(3), n.p.

1974 "Teacher education: Soufflé de fromage, or cheese omelet?" In Douglas Myers and Fran Reid (eds.), Educating Teachers: Critiques and Proposals. Symposium Series #4. Toronto: The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

House, E.
1980 Evaluation with Validity. Beverley Hills, California: Gage.

How About Teaching!
n.d. Membership Information Services, Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation.

Ianni, Frances A. J. and Margaret Terry Orr
1979 "Toward a rapprochement of quantitative and qualitative methodologies." In Thomas D. Cook and Charles S. Reichardt (eds.), Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Evaluation Research. Beverley Hills, California: Sage Publications.

Jick, Todd D.
1979 "Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: Triangulation in action." Administrative Science Quarterly, 24, 602-611.

Johnson, Bettye
1978 "Clinical supervision guidelines applied to student teaching." Tennessee Education, 8(2), 14-19.

Joyce, Bruce
1981 "The Phoenix plan: Essential reform in teacher education." In Theory to Practice. Report of the Committee to Evaluate the Extended Practicum Program at Alberta Universities. Appendix B.

Joyce, Bruce and Beverley Showers
1982 "The coaching of teaching." Educational Leadership, 40(1), 4-10.

Joyce, Bruce and Marsha Weil (eds.)
1972 Perspectives for Reform in Teacher Education. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Kalman, Marjorie
1976 "Use of responsive evaluation in statewide program evaluation." Studies in Educational Evaluation, 2(1), 9-18.

Kaplan, A.
1964 The Conduct of Inquiry. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company.

Katz, Lillian G.
1972 "Developmental stages of pre-school teachers." The Elementary School Journal, 73(1), 50-54.

Katz, Lillian G., James Raths, Chandra Mohanty, Akemi Kurachi and Joyce Irving
1981 "Follow-up studies: Are they worth the trouble?" Journal of Teacher Education, 32(2), 18-24.

Kemmis, Stephen
1980 "Case study methods in evaluation." Paper presented at the Australian Association for Research in Education Research Training Workshop, 1980.

1982 "Seven principles for program evaluation in curriculum development and innovation." Journal of Curriculum Studies, 14(3), 221-240.

Kerber, J. E. and D. W. Protheroe
1973 Guiding Student Teaching Experiences in a Cooperative Structure. Bulletin No. 33. Washington, D.C.: Association of Teacher Educators.

King, David
1982 Seminar presented at University of Alberta, Faculty of Education, Department of Educational Administration doctoral seminar, March 25, 1982.

Klintberg, Irene G.
1976 "A responsive evaluation of two programs in medical evaluation." Studies in Educational Evaluation, 2(1), 23-30.

Kramer, Howard C.
1980 "Boundary spanning: Implications for student personnel." Journal of College Student Personnel, 21(2), 105-108.

Land, Francis L.
1976 "The evaluation from the program director's viewpoint." Studies in Educational Evaluation, 2(1), 31-32.

LeCompte, Margaret D. and Judith Preissle Goetz
1982 "Problems of reliability and validity in ethnographic research." Review of Educational Research, 52(1), 31-60.

Leeper, Harry Cole
1975 "Self-actualization and grade point average: Investigation of statistical correlations." Unpublished master's thesis, University of Mississippi.

Leith, G. O. M.
1982 "The influence of personality on learning to teach: Effects and delayed effects of microteaching." Educational Review, 34(3), 195-204.

Levine, Murray
1973 "Scientific method and the adversary model: Some preliminary suggestions." Evaluation Comment, 4(2), 1-3.

Light, Richard J. and David B. Pillemer
1982 "Numbers and narrative: Combining their strengths in research reviews." Harvard Educational Review, 52(1), 1-26.

Lincoln, Yvonna S. and Egon G. Guba
1980 "The distinction between merit and worth in evaluation." Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 2(4), 61-71.

Lowe, L. Lynn
1982 "The University of Lethbridge's program." The Alberta Teachers' Association Magazine, 62(2), 43.

MacDonald, Barry
1976 "Evaluation and the control of education." In D. Tawney (ed.), Curriculum Evaluation Today: Trends and Implications. London: Macmillan.

MacKay, A.
1979 "Project Quest: Teaching strategies and pupil achievement." Occasional Paper Series No. 79-1-3. Edmonton: Centre for Research in Teaching, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta.

Management of Change in Teacher Education
1979 Faculty of Education, University of Montview. Second survey feedback report.

Marrett, Cora Bagley
1972 "On the specification of interorganizational dimensions." Sociology and Social Research, 56, 83-97.

Maxey, Phyllis F.
1982 "A consultant in the student teaching triad." Paper presented to the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, March, 1982.

McCabe, J. J. C.
1979 "Some implications of induction for initial teacher training." British Journal of Teacher Education, 5(2), 157-164.

McIntyre, D. John and William R. Norris
1980 "The state of the art of preservice teacher education programs and supervision of field experiences." Action in Teacher Education, 2(3), 67-70.

Miles, William R.
1981 "Illuminative evaluation for formative decision-making: A case study of teaching/learning styles and mathematics." Evaluation Review, 5(4), 479-499.

National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards
1967 A New Order in Student Teaching: Fixing Responsibility for Student Teaching. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association.

NORTEP Program Report
1978 Report of the Northern Teacher Education Program.

O.C.R.E. Student Resource Manual 1
n.d. Faculty of Education, Montview University.

Parish, Ralph and Richard Arends
1983 "Why innovative programs are discontinued." Educational Leadership, 40(4), 62-65.

Parker, D. V.
1982 Personal communication regarding new video-disc technology for simulated classroom teaching practice, May, 1982.

Parlett, M. and D. Hamilton
1972 *Evaluation as Illumination: A New Approach to the Study of Innovatory Programmes*. Occasional Paper 9. Edinburgh: Centre for Research in the Educational Sciences, University of Edinburgh.

Patterson, Robert S.
1982 "Alberta's normal schools." *The ATA Magazine* (Alberta Teachers' Association), 62(2), 9-13.

Pereira, L. Chainho
1982 "The implementation of curriculum change in teacher education courses." *European Journal of Science Education*, 4(1), 105-108.

Petersen, C. H., R. D. Brown and Mark Sanstead
1979 "Photographic evaluation from three perspectives: Portrayal, goal-free, judicial." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, April, 1979.

Peterson, Penelope L. and Herbert J. Walberg (eds.)
1979 *Research on Teaching: Concepts, Findings and Implications*. Berkeley, California: McCutchan.

Pillemer, David B. and Richard J. Light
1980 "Synthesizing outcomes: How to use research evidence from many studies." *Harvard Educational Review*, 50(2), 176-195.

Popkewitz, Thomas S., B. Robert Tabachnick and Kenneth M. Zeichner
1979 "Dulling the senses: Research in teacher education." *Journal of Teacher Education*, 30(5), 52-60.

Pre-internship Cooperating Teacher's Manual
n.d. Faculty of Education, Montview University.

Rakel, Robert E.
1976 "A summary: Responsive evaluation and family practice." *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 2(1), 35-36.

Ratsoy, E. S., G. R. Babcock and B. J. Caldwell
1978 *Evaluation of the Education Practicum Program 1977-78*. Edmonton: Office of Program Evaluation, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta.

Reichardt, Charles S. and Thomas D. Cook
1979 "Beyond qualitative versus quantitative methods." In Thomas D. Cook and Charles S. Reichardt (eds.), *Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Evaluation Research*. Beverley Hills, California: Sage Publications.

Reiff, Judith
1980 "Program evaluation based on faculty/student responses." *College Student Journal*, 14(3), 237-246.

Rickman, Linda Wilkins and John Hollowell
1981 "Some causes of student teacher failure." Improving College and University Teaching, 29(4), 176-179.

Rist, Roy C.
1980 "Blitzkrieg ethnography: On the transformation of a method into a movement." Educational Researcher, 9(2), 8-10.

Ross, Steven M., Franklin B. Raines, Michael J. Cervetti and Donald A. Dallow
1980 "Field experiences for teacher candidates: A comparison between tutorial and apprenticeship programs on student activities and attitudes." Journal of Teacher Education, 31(6), 57-61.

School Based Teacher Education within the Concept of the High Activity School.
1981 Discussion paper, School of Education, Deakin University, Geelong, Australia.

Schwanke, Dean
1980 "Follow-up studies and teacher education program content." Journal of Teacher Education, 31(4), 49-50.

Schwartz, T. A., M. H. Kaplan and R. M. Linden
1982 "Moving to an interorganizational context for public school education: A case study." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, March, 1982.

Scott, Myrtle and Susan J. Eklund
1978 "Ecological methods in the study of administrative behaviour." Paper presented at UCEA and Indiana University School of Education Seminar on Methodological Issues in Administrative Inquiry, Bloomington, Indiana, November, 1978.

Seiferth, Berniece B. and Michael A. Solliday.
1980 "A time study of the patterns of activities of student teachers." College Student Journal, 14(3), 285-287.

Shelly, Melvin H.
1982 "The role of evaluation in child care research." Child Care Quarterly, 11(1), 22-43.

Showalter, Benjamin R.
1926 "The Auburn Plan of laboratory practice in supervision." School and Society, 25, 484-486.

Slavin, Robert E.
1981 "A case study of psychological research affecting classroom practice: Student team learning." The Elementary School Journal, 82(1), 4-17.

Smyth, W. J., C. Henry, A. Marcus, T. Logan and M. Meadows.
1982 "A follow-through case study of clinical supervision." Report by the Clinical Supervision Group at Deakin University, Geelong, Australia.

Stake, Robert E.
1969 "Generalizability of program evaluation: The need for limits." Educational Products Reports, 2(5), 39-40.

1972a "An approach to the evaluation of instructional programs." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, April, 1972.

1972b "Responsive evaluation." ERIC Document ED 075-487.

1972c "The seven principal cardinals of educational evaluation." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, April, 1972.

1975a "Program evaluation, particularly responsive evaluation." Occasional paper series. Kalamazoo: School of Education, University of Western Michigan.

1975b Evaluating the Arts in Education: A Responsive Approach. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company.

1976a "A theoretical statement of responsive evaluation." Studies in Educational Evaluation, 2(1), 19-22.

1976b "Making school evaluation relevant." North Central Association Quarterly, 50(4), 347-352.

1976c "Overview and critique of existing evaluation practices and some new leads for the future. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, April, 1976.

1976d Evaluating Educational Programmes: The Need and the Response. Paris: Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.

1977 "The seeds of doubt." In David Hamilton, Barry MacDonald, Christine King, David Jenkins and Malcolm Parlett (eds.), Beyond the Numbers Game: A Reader in Educational Evaluation. Berkeley, California: McCutchan.

1978a *Case Studies in Science Education*. Vol II, *Design, Overview and General Findings*. Urbana, Illinois: Centre for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation, University of Illinois.

1978b "The case study method in social inquiry." *Educational Researcher*, 7(2), 5-8.

1981 "Persuasions, not models." *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 3(1), 83-84.

Stake, Robert E. and Craig Gjerde
1975 *An Evaluation of T City: The Twin City Institute for Talented Youth*. Report No. 1 in Evaluation Report Series. Kalamazoo, Michigan: Evaluation Centre, University of Western Michigan.

Stake, Robert E. and Gordon A. Hoke
1976 "Evaluating an arts program: Movement and dance in a downstate district." *National Elementary Principal*, 55(3), 52-59.

Stones, E.
1979 *Psychopedagogy: Psychological Theory and the Practice of Teaching*. New York: Methuen.

Student Teaching Handbook
1978 Vancouver: Faculty of Education, The University of British Columbia.

Stufflebeam, Daniel L.
1980 *Standards for Evaluations of Educational Programs, Projects and Materials*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Submission to the Task Force on Secondary Education, Montview University
1978 Submission by the Provincial Teachers' Federation.

"Sunrise Concepts"
1983 *Quarterly Report* (SSTA Research Centre, Regina, Saskatchewan), 5(4), n.p.

Theory to Practice
1981 Report of the Committee to Evaluate the Extended Practicum Program at Alberta universities.

Thies-Sprinthall, Lois
1980 "Supervision: An educative or mis-educative process." *Journal of Teacher Education*, 31(4), 17-20.

Tom, Alan R.
1981 "An alternative set of NCATE standards." *Journal of Teacher Education*, 32(6), 48-52.

Trend, M. G.
1979 "On the reconciliation of qualitative and quantitative analysis." In Thomas D. Cook and Charles S. Reichardt (eds.), Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Evaluation Research. Beverley Hills, California: Sage Publications.

Tushman, Michael L. and Thomas J. Scanlan
1981a "Characteristics and external orientations of boundary spanning individuals." Academy of Management Journal, 24(1), 83-98.

1981b "Boundary spanning individuals: Their role in information transfer and their antecedents." Academy of Management Journal, 24(2), 289-305.

Twa, Jim and Myrna Greene
1980 "Testing models developed to predict performance in student teaching." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston, April, 1980.

Van de Ven, Andrew
1976 "On the nature, formation and maintenance of relations among organizations." Academy of Management Review, 19(1), 24-36.

Van de Ven, Andrew, D. C. Emmett and R. Koenig
1974 "Frameworks for interorganizational analysis." Organizational and Administrative Sciences Journal, 5(1), 113-129.

Van de Ven, Andrew, G. Walker and Jennie Liston
1979 "Combination patterns within an interorganizational relations network." Human Relations, 32(1), 19-36.

Wadd, Keith
1982 "What theory into practice?" Educational Review, 34(3), 219-228.

Walberg, Herbert J., Diane Schiller and Geneva D. Haertel
1979 "The quiet revolution in educational research." Phi Delta Kappan, 51(3), 179-183.

Wardrop, James L.
1969 "Generalizability of program evaluation: The dangers of limits." Educational Products Reports, 2(5), 41-42.

Weick, Karl
1976 "Educational organizations as loosely coupled systems." Administrative Science Quarterly, 21(1), 1-19.

Whetten, David A.
1981 "Interorganizational relations: A review of the field." Journal of Higher Education, 52(1), 1-28.

"Who's in Charge Here? Fixing Responsibilities for Student Teaching"
1966 A discussion paper. Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA.

Wideen, Marvin, David Hopkins and Michael Fullan
1980 "Change in Canadian teacher education: Findings from a national study." Pedagogen, Winter, 1980, 23-31.

Wilson, Stephen
1977 "The use of ethnographic techniques in educational research." Review of Educational Research, 47(1), 245-265.

Yee, Albert H.
1971 "Interpersonal relationships in the student teaching triad." In Albert H. Yee (ed.), Social Interaction in Educational Settings. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Zeichner, Kenneth M.
1978 "The knowledge gap in student teaching: A methodological critique of the research. Paper prepared for the Association of Teacher Educators, Las Vegas, February, 1978.

1980a "Key processes in the socialization of student teachers: Limitations and consequences of oversocialized conceptions of teacher socialization." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston, April, 1980.

1980b "The student teaching seminar: A vehicle for the development of reflective teachers." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators, Washington, D.C., February, 1980.

Zeichner, Kenneth M. and B. Robert Tabachnik
1981 "Are the effects of university teacher education 'washed out' by school experience?" Journal of Teacher Education, 32(3), 7-11.

Zimpher, Nancy, Gary G. deVoss and Deborah L. Nott
1980 "A closer look at university student teacher supervision." Journal of Teacher Education, 31(4), 11-15.

Group B

Works by Montview Faculty of Education Members, Cooperating Teachers and Administrators

I

1977 "Student teachers' perceptions of their practicum experiences." Faculty of Education, Montview University.

II

1979 "A survey of students' opinions and evaluations of their Pre-internship Year in training." Faculty of Education, Montview University.

III

1980 "Evaluation unit report: Survey of students' evaluation of their Pre-internship year—1979-80. Faculty of Education, Montview University.

IV

1982 "Closing the theory-practice gap with a developmental model of teacher education." Paper presented at the Teacher Education in the 80's and 90's Seminar at the University of Groningen, Groningen, The Netherlands, April 2-8, 1982.

V

1982 "EdGen126 '82F Semester Orientation Package." Faculty of Education, Montview University.

VI

1978 *First Class: A Survey of Canadian Teachers in Their First Year of Service*.

VII

1982 "Internship seminars for interns and supervising teachers." Faculty of Education, Montview University, Provincial Teachers' Federation and Department of Education.

VIII

1980 "More than knowing . . ." Paper submitted to the Task Force on Secondary Teacher Education at Montview University.

IX

1981 "After the internship . . . what?" Paper presented to the Western Canadian Association for Student Teaching Annual Conference, Vancouver, March, 1981.

X

1980 "A shared responsibility: Pre-practicum seminar for the development of effective supervisory procedures for cooperating teachers and interns." Paper presented to the Association of Teacher Educators, 60th Annual Convention, Washington, D.C., 1980.

XI
1981 "Learning to teach—A shared responsibility." Joint Field Experience Committee, Faculty of Education, Montview University.

XII
1973 "Internship . . . in the 70's." The School Trustee, 26(1), 15-17.

XIII
1976 "Special internship seminar." A paper prepared for the Joint Committee on Field Experiences, Faculty of Education, Montview University.

XIV
1981 "Report to Dean on interns."

XV
1980 Report of the Task Force on Secondary Teacher Education. Faculty of Education, Montview University.

XVI
1982 "A history of the new elementary program at Montview University." Paper presented to the Canadian Society for the Study of Education Conference, Ottawa, June, 1982.

XVII
1979 "The effects of laboratory training on the teacher-intern interpersonal relationship." Unpublished master's thesis, School of Education, Montview University.

XVIII
1980 "Elementary teacher education program." Faculty of Education, University of Alberta.

XIX
1980 "Proposal for post-internship seminars." Proposal from Program Manager to B.Ed. Elementary Program Teams.

XX
1977 Student Opinions of Student Teaching: A Canadian Survey. Toronto: The Canadian Education Association.

XXI
1981 "Annual report of the Education Student Testing and Counselling Centre, 1980-81." Montview University.

XXII
1983 "Towards a better integration of theory and practice." Paper presented at a conference in Montview, March, 1983.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

MEMORANDUM TO MONTVIEW EDUCATION FACULTY

Some Comments on the Elementary Practicum Evaluation

May I first thank all those people whose cooperation has made the task of data gathering much less arduous than I anticipated. Many people have put themselves to quite considerable inconvenience in the middle of very busy schedules to talk to me, provide copies of papers, etc. and take me to schools to interview school personnel. I have appreciated this very much.

The approach I have taken is modelled on Robert Stake's Responsive Evaluation. Thus an attempt has been made to

(i) orient inquiries more directly to program activities than program intents.
(ii) respond to organization members' perceptions of significant issues.
(iii) be aware of different value perspectives present, both in collecting data and reporting on the program.

In the report, there will probably be less statistics than many people have learned to expect in evaluation reports. Stake himself refers to this aspect of responsive evaluation as the sacrifice of some accuracy for an increase in relevance. Nevertheless, vigorous attempts have been made to increase the trustworthiness of the data wherever possible. Access to many sources and types of data has allowed triangulation to be carried out in many cases.

Some other comments made by Stake may be useful as an advance organizer for the final report which should be available by late May or June, 1983.

> "I like the evaluator more in the role of civil servant than of civil philosopher. When you hire an evaluator, you aren't hiring a person who has a great deal of wisdom about your problems. . . . It's much more likely that whatever truths, whatever solutions there are, exist in the minds of the people running the program, those participating in the program, those patrons of the program.
>
> The evaluator . . . is making his greatest contribution I think, when he is helping people discover ideas, answers, solutions, within their own minds. . . . He promotes internal authority rather than external authority. . . . I emphasize the facilitator role more than the deliverer of insights."
>
> "We need to portray complexity, to convey holistic impressions, the mood, even the mystery of the experience. The program staff may be uncertain and the audiences should feel that uncertainty. . . . More ambiguity, rather than less may be needed in our reports."

I have certainly found a wealth of insights and ideas about the program as well as plenty of complexity and ambiguity among the seventy plus respondents interviewed so far.

The dilemma now facing me is to produce a document which will be at once useful to the faculty and other program participants and also acceptable as a dissertation by my University of Alberta committee.

Thank you again for your friendly assistance and encouragement. Best wishes to all for Christmas and the New Year.

Barrie T. Dickie

APPENDIX 2

INVITATION TO ATTEND SPECIAL INTERNSHIP SEMINAR

June 21, 1982

Mr. Barrie Dickie
146 Michener Park
Edmonton, Alberta
T6H 4M4

Dear Barrie:

The enclosed materials will provide you with a rough idea of what we are doing at Montview University as far as Internship experiences and teacher involvement is concerned.

In the event you wish to attend our September 19-24 Internship Seminar please so indicate by returning the application. I don't know if Professor ________ mentioned expenses, but while at the Seminar the Faculty of Education will pay your lodging and meals and provide transportation to the Seminar site and back to Montview.

Best wishes for an eventful journey to Vancouver and Europe. We hope to see you in Montview September 11th.

Sincerely

Coordinator
Professional Development

APPENDIX 3

REPLY TO INVITATION TO ATTEND SEMINAR

146 Michener Park
Edmonton, Alta.
Canada T6H 4M4

Dear Dr. ________,

Thank you very much for sending the information and application forms for the pre-practicum seminar. I've returned the latter with this letter.

I would be very interested in having a detailed look at how the system works between September 16th and about Christmas. I met ________ over here and she mentioned that you had discussed an evaluation of the practicum for some time. If this still interests the organizing group, I would like to take a responsive evaluation approach, as Stake used the term in 1975. Many of the issues are raised in papers you sent across; you may wish to identify others; an outsider like myself may notice others.

If this is acceptable, I would appreciate the chance to meet some of the organizers before the September 19th seminar begins. I leave for Europe August 12 and return September 11th. I hope to arrive in Montview about September 15th/16th, and will contact you as soon as possible after that. If you prefer, we could meet before August 12th. My phone here is 434-6820. I look forward to meeting you and finding out more about the Montview internship.

Yours sincerely,

Barrie T. Dickie

APPENDIX 4

MEMORANDUM OF AGREEMENT

MEMORANDUM OF AGREEMENT

Between: The Faculty of Education, Montview University and Barrie T. Dickie

INVITATION

The researcher is invited by the faculty to conduct a survey of the faculty of education, its relationship with other institutions, the professional community of members of the faculty and the students within the faculty of education.

The specific focus of the survey is the extended practicum as experienced by elementary teachers in training.

THE RESEARCHER

Barrie T. Dickie, doctoral student, University of Alberta, senior lecturer, Deakin University, Australia.

SURVEY REPORT

The researcher agrees within the limits of time and resources available to present a report on the survey to the faculty by July 1st, 1983. The report will contain summaries of the data generated and identify the major issues which have arisen during the duration of the report.

ACCESS TO DATA

It is understood that the faculty will make available to the researcher whatever records and information are necessary for him to discharge his agreement with the faculty. The researcher recognizes that he must respect the confidentiality of certain information held by the faculty and also accepts that access to such information shall be adjudicated by the dean of the faculty.

It is further understood that the researcher will be permitted to interview any persons or groups whose perspectives seem relevant to the purposes of the survey, to accept representations from such persons or groups and to observe with the prior agreement of the persons concerned the operation of the faculty in any of its facets (e.g. by class observation, attendance at meetings, etc.) where such observations in the opinion of the persons concerned do not unreasonably disrupt the work of faculty members, students or administrators.

All information and observations collected by the researcher will be handled in accordance with the principles of procedure attached to this memorandum.

RESOURCES

Resources for the collection of information and the preparation of the report will be provided in the first place by the researcher. A copy of the report will be made available by the researcher for the faculty.

DISTRIBUTION

The primary audience for the report shall be the members of the faculty and its community, and the faculty shall have the right to copy and distribute the report to members of its community.

The report, or materials from the report may, with the approval of the faculty, be made available for publication by the researcher as part of his program of research and instruction.

PRINCIPLES OF PROCEDURE

1. GENERAL

No members of the faculty, school systems or student body have privileged access to the interview records and transcripts generated by the researcher.

No members of the faculty, student body or related organizations have any power of veto over the content of the report, although a request for restricted distribution will be honored, if made.

Correspondence, communication, records and data are confidential to the researcher.

2. DISINTEREST

The report is intended to represent the issues as perceived by those in and around the faculty, and to give an account of those issues which is fair, accurate and relevant and accepted as such by those whose views are represented in the report.

3. ACCESS, REPRESENTATION AND ACCEPTANCE

The researcher will seek only reasonable access to data sources, confining his attention to issues relevant to the purposes of the survey.

Those approached by the researchers to give their views should feel free to discuss any matters they believe to be relevant to the purposes of the survey. All conversations will be regarded as privileged.

Where possible, materials derived from such conversations or observations will be checked with participants for fairness, relevance and accuracy and may be amended to comply with these criteria.

Interviews, conversations, meetings and written exchanges between the researcher and respondents will not be regarded as off the record but those involved are free, both before and after, to restrict aspects or parts of such exchanges on the basis that they wish to correct or improve their statements.

When detailed information reveals the identity of the sources and where it seems possible that negative consequences for individuals may result from such identification specific clearance (on the basis of fairness, accuracy and relevance) will be sought from those individuals.

Once materials has been accepted by participants as fair, accurate and relevant it may be incorporated into the final report without amendment.

PUBLICATION AND ANONYMITY

The confidentiality of materials and the anonymity of individuals will, as far as is possible, be protected by the researcher who will seek the advice of the faculty regarding the confidentiality and anonymity of participants, having regard to the criteria of fairness, relevance and accuracy. Should further publication of materials from the survey be contemplated, the faculty has the right to request similar anonymity for itself.

AGREEMENT TO PRINCIPLES OF PROCEDURE

By engaging in this survey, the faculty and the researcher agree to abide by these principles of procedure.

APPENDIX 5

CONSENT FORM

CONSENT FORM

You have been requested to assist Mr. Barrie Dickie to carry out a responsive evaluation of the elementary practicum at Montview University.

Any information or comment that you are willing to provide will be regarded as privileged and you may request that it not be attributed to you if used in the final report.

Every effort will be made to maintain the anonymity of the source of any information which might prove damaging to the informant. Where any doubt exists, the informant will be approached by the researcher for final clearance on the basis of fairness, accuracy, relevance and anonymity before the report is completed.

Having read and understood the above information, I hereby agree to assist in the project under the above conditions.

SIGNATURE ____

NAME - PLEASE PRINT ______________________________

POSITION ____

APPENDIX 6

EXAMPLE OF A PARTICIPANT OBSERVER'S PERSPECTIVE GIVEN TO MONTVIEW RESPONDENTS AS A GUIDE

TCITY-1971 EVALUATION REPORT: A PARTICIPANT OBSERVER'S PERSPECTIVE

As my part in the evaluation of TCITY [a gifted children's summer program] I was a participant observer. I was a member of the Wilderness Leadership class and was involved in the guidance of other classes on canoe and camping trips. Having had a fair amount of previous camping experience I was able to observe carefully the learning experiences of other students.

It is apparent to me that students want to learn. At TCITY, teachers provided the opportunity for an interesting learning experience. Students took the initiative, and "away she goes".

Students will learn, even under adverse conditions. On one occasion after a nearly sleepless night under a non-rainproof shelter, a friend came to sit-out the rain under my dry shelter. He was in low spirits and explained to me that he was not learning what he wanted to. He said that he was learning what was wrong, but not what was right. But we figured out his teachers were not trying to teach him what was right. They were not trying to teach him the answers—they were trying to teach him the questions. And even though he said he didn't want to, he was learning. They kept putting him in situations where he would learn.

I believe the Wilderness Leadership class was a very successful one. The students could have been taught more than they were, and they could have learned more than they did. But they enjoyed it, even with adverse conditions, and learned about handling themselves and others in the outdoors. Lots of time was spent not being students, just being themselves. It seemed they learned just as well that way.

One of the important reasons for the success of the class was the freedom given the students: the freedom to choose whether or not to go to class or—in this class—which trips to go on. With the amount of involvement that was asked, a trip almost every week, it would have been easy for the students to reject it. But it was their choice, and they were glad to do it.

The important thing in all the Institute classes I worked with was the atmosphere that influenced students' attitudes. The atmosphere at TCITY was one that encouraged the student to learn because he wanted to, not because he had to.

The basic element of this atmosphere was freedom: freedom of movement in and out of the classroom, and freedom of choice of subject material. At TCITY I saw students moving, choosing, learning.

Ben Stake, Student
University High School
Urbana, Illinois

APPENDIX 7

PARTICIPANT OBSERVER'S PERSPECTIVE: 1

PARTICIPANT OBSERVER'S PERSPECTIVE: 1

The Montview University internship program has many strengths and weaknesses. I have attended this university for the full term of my degree in education and therefore have been involved with the student teaching practices from my first year. I must express that the early classroom involvement advocated at Montview University is an excellent "sifting" device; by this I mean that the first and second year students see teaching from the "inside" very early. Many students are then faced head on with their present chosen career and, those that find it distasteful drop out an an early stage.

More specifically, internship allows the student teacher to see and experience many things that teachers normally do not experience until they, themselves are actually out in the field teaching. As a specific example, the student teacher is involved in the actual setting up of the classroom as the year begins; here the student teacher can view the procedures that may take them years of trial and error to establish alone. To strengthen this observation I heard many comments from principals and long time teachers refering to how lucky we are to have a trial run at things that they had to establish over the years on their own.

The internship experience allows the student teacher to realistically apply and evaluate the skills they learned in theory and isolation in the university classes. The question of "What really works in the classroom?" is something that the student teacher begins to evaluate. As well, the student teacher realizes that there are no "right" answers to problems and that some of the theories learned in university are not infallible; a very enlightening experience.

With adequate and meaningful feedback the student teacher realizes their own areas of strength and weakness with relation to classroom teaching. This is a valuable process which helped me to realize that a teacher constantly analyzes his/herself in order to improve communication skills with relation to his/her students.

Unfortunately, the situation of adequate and meaningful feedback is not always realized. From my experience and various fellow students the lack of meaningful feedback is the situation. Feedback is to come from the cooperating teacher and the intern's advisor. Many cooperating teachers feel threatened or overwhelmed by the feedback procedures and intern stipulations that they are provided with from the university. Consequently, they either ignore them or adhere to them full force which makes the internship unrealistically demanding as the expectations delineated in the teacher's handbook are very high and complex.

So, the ball ends up in the advisor's court, so to speak. The feedback offered from my personal advisor was very relevant and beneficial to me. But, as I understand it, that is not always the case. I have been informed of situations where the advisor showed up to observe one particular intern once and informed her that she was doing fine and that she (the advisor) would not be out to observe her again.

My points in the preceding two paragraphs are simply that:

1. a very complex combination of expectations are outlined for the student teacher and that
2. these expectations are carried out inconsistently as some teachers often ignore them and others adhere to them.
3. the advisor's role in the student teaching experience is important and may be inadequate.

Personally I feel that the expectations for the intern should be summarized and condensed into a digestible form for the benefit of both the teacher and the intern. The feedback procedures should also be somewhat standardized and simplified so that they would be carried out for the benefit of the intern. Also, the advisor should be out in the classroom weekly or bi-weekly to assure that these procedures are applied.

Finally, the most complex experience of the internship is the relationship between the cooperating teacher and the intern. In spite of the so-called "professionalism" of this relationship, there are very often personal differences. These differences can weigh very heavily on either the intern or the cooperating teacher. And, in some specific instances that I know of, this relationship was instrumental in causing some interns to leave the program and never return to teaching.

This personal relationship is a very complex issue. Everyone has different philosophies and, if an intern is paired with a cooperating teacher that has a very different philosophy than they, the going can be extremely rough. This is a very complex issue that must be handled head on. The internship seminar is one way of establishing a good relationship but I feel that some sort of personal compatibility test should determine whether certain interns and cooperating teachers are suited to working together in such an "intimate" relationship before the placement is made.

In summary these are my impressions from my experience interning and from experiences of fellow students. I realize that some of my suggestions would be difficult to administer but they are some of the logical solutions that come to my mind. On the whole, the internship experience is very intensive and many learnings result from it; these learnings are both positive and negative. Personally the most important things that I learned from internship are that I have such a lot more to learn in teaching and that the challenge of this learning coupled with the students in the classroom are the two things that make me want to pursue this career.

APPENDIX 8

PARTICIPANT OBSERVER'S PERSPECTIVE: 2

PARTICIPANT OBSERVER'S PERSPECTIVE: 2

I'm currently ending "semester 2" of my year. Last semester is slightly blurry at this point, but perhaps clearer in some philosophical aspects.

My experience in the introductory education practicum involved 7½ day(½) sessions in a public elementary grade six/five class. It is important to state that the school is situated in a low income district of Montview. A few (2 or 3) children in the class had emotional/social disabilities (mainly of delinquency). These children were "slow learners" and gradually were being integrated into "normal" classrooms.

The practicum was designed primarily to be one of observational experience. My own experience, however, did involve some teaching. I also indicated interest in teaching because I was eager to see what it was like!

The students were keen and receptive to teaching. I noted that the students must be kept actively involved with activity-type learning experiences. I provided some demonstrations in my lessons which really captivated their interest. I was very impressed with their overall eagerness to participate by asking questions, helping myself or the regular teacher. The classroom had quite well defined rules; and students were seated in the traditional manner. I felt this arrangement may have been somewhat restrictive to their naturally inquisitive natures.

The more students were given positive encouragement/reinforcement, the better they responded, whether it was in question periods or while they did seatwork. The students seemed to require a lot of prodding/nagging to get their homework assignments completed.

From these observations I feel children must be given adequate guidance in learning; not pressure to learn. Children have potential for many modes of thought, and this potential should be encouraged and nurtured by the teacher.

As I discussed with you earlier, I query whether some young university students (18-19 yrs of age) should be so readily accepted into the faculty of Education with no previous arts/science or working background. I found many of my co-students to be quite immature in many of their thinking and coping patterns. They did not seem to realize or consider the meaning of the teaching learning process, nor did they seem to possess the necessary confidence in themselves to adequately use "their self" in teaching children. However, the experience of Ed-Gen 126 certainly provides an excellent opportunity to observe the realities of teaching and working in educational atmospheres.

Our class professor, ________, was definitely an asset to the class. She allowed for expression and discussion of key issues in education in the class periods, as well as supplementing the students with theories and trends of education. She was more than likely an excellent supervisor to the students during their practicum, providing objective advice and suggestions.

I feel students keen on pursuit of a teaching career must be adequately screened on three levels:

1. academic
2. personal
3. professional ability (potential).

It may be beneficial to be more rigid regarding entrance requirements, asking perhaps for at least one year of arts and science before entrance to the Faculty is considered. There is certainly no demand (job-wise) for teachers so there should be nothing wrong with screening students more carefully and having fewer numbers graduate.

Since my experience in Ed-Gen 126 I have met more students in Education, but at higher levels, some graduating this year. Frankly, some of them scare me silly that they will be imparting their narrow and immature knowledge on students. Many of them do not strive academically, just barely passing. There are of course, a few students who will make excellent teachers. It is a very self-oriented personal profession, it is very important therefore to be in touch with that "self" doing the teaching.

I could ramble on and on for months about this! I hope these comments have been of some value to you. I have put quite some thought into what I have said, writing at intervals.

Thank you again for your interest. Please let me know what you think of my comments.

APPENDIX 9

PARTICIPANT OBSERVER'S PERSPECTIVE: 3

PARTICIPANT OBSERVER'S PERSPECTIVE: 3

My impressions and observations of the past year still induce many emotional responses, some pleasant and some not so pleasant. In the following, I hope that I can rise above the emotion and explain as objectively as I can what the past year has meant to me both professionally and personally.

As you know, many of us had mixed feelings about the second year of the programme. Anxiety levels were generally high for various reasons. For myself, I know this was a result of a heavy workload and a constant pressure to perform (i.e. a day rarely went by when we did not write a test, teach a lesson or give a presentation). The pace, particularly during the six week blocks in the first semester was hectic. There was too much to be done and too much material to assimilate in such a short time.

Some anxiety also resulted from a lack of communication between faculty and students. In particular, I am thinking of several classes where the teacher's objectives and expectations were not clearly defined. Many times, students were left asking two question: (1) what am I getting out of this class? and (2) what am I supposed to be getting out of this class? Because there were no answers to these questions (in some cases, they were never voiced or even consciously realized), the result was a large number of frustrated people setting their own goals and expectations and being disappointed by what actually occurred.

I think I was also somewhat frightened and pressured by the fact that many of those six week methods classes provided me with the only formalized training I theoretically need before I am qualified to teach. This is a frightening prospect as I don't feel prepared to teach in several of the subject areas. At this point, I am hoping that the teaching methods and strategies I learned from EdGen226 will compensate for any lack of knowledge I may have.

It is difficult, even at this time, to separate the content presented in our methods classes with the way it was presented and the person or persons who presented it. To a certain extent each of the classes had strengths and weaknesses because of a number of factors. The classes which I feel have prepared me the best for what lies ahead are those where positive teaching methods and strategies were employed. The links to our EdGen material were direct and seeing the things we were learning in EdGen actually practiced by our profs was worth a dozen lectures. Unfortunately, for reasons I can't begin to guess at, this tie between EdGen and other classes was rarely utilized. I say it was unfortunate because I myself saw it as a powerful teaching tool, one which I benefited greatly from. Perhaps this speaks strongly for the teaching tools which have been presented to us through EdGen.

The lab time that I spent in conjunction with EdGen22[illegible] was extremely worthwhile but then I was fortunate to work with a lab instructor and with fellow students who were wonderfully supportive, helpful and encouraging. I was also fortunate to have my advisor as my lab instructor for not only were we able to form a relationship on campus, but this continued to grow off campus in the school. Many individuals did not have this opportunity and this has contributed to the inability of many of the advisor/advisee/cooperating teacher relationships to work effectively.

It would seem that another major difficulty with this relationship has been caused in part by a lack of funds within the faculty. Because there isn't the money to hire people to fulfill the advisor role, many individuals who are not committed or don't have time to be committed to the development of the students are forced into the role of advisor. They rarely if ever see their advisees teach in the lab situation, rarely go to the school to watch the advisee teach, are not practiced in the techniques of giving feedback and consequently are not effective as advisors. From the perspective of an individual who has benefited enormously from the advisee/advisor relationship, I would say that this is an integral part of the second year program in getting the theory learned into practice. It deserves more attention than it is now receiving.

For myself, the experience of being in the schools once a week through the year and then for a two week block at the end worked well. During the year, it was good to work on things gradually, step by step. By the time the two week block was at hand, I felt fairly comfortable with the students, the classroom's organization and the general structure of activities. The major difficulties I encountered with this arrangement included the fact that being out one day a week did not allow me to get a grasp of where many of the students were in terms of their strengths and weaknesses. Also, although we were told at the university to concentrate on the teaching methods and strategies we were learning and to try to disregard the content material in our lessons as much as possible, it was difficult to do so realistically. There sometimes needed to be better communications between the university and the cooperating teachers. In some cases the cooperating teacher had far different expectations of the students than the faculty at the university had and when the advisor/advisee/cooperating teacher relationship was not working effectively, there were terrible results. (I am speaking generally here. This did not occur in my case.)

My two week block was a positive growing period and I am grateful for the support my coop and advisor gave me. They helped me to face both my strengths and weaknesses with confidence and a constructive attitude. At this time, I was able to become better acquainted with the students and was able to grasp the continuity of the teaching/learning process. I look forward to Internship in the fall. Then I will no doubt learn just how well the past year has prepared me for teaching.

APPENDIX 10

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA ON THE RESEARCHER

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA ON THE RESEARCHER

Experience in Teacher Education Institutions as a Student

Trained Secondary Teachers' Certificate: Secondary Teachers' College Melbourne, 1960

Diploma of Education: University of Melbourne 1967

Later Study

Bachelor of Education: University of Melbourne 1973

Master of Education: University of Melbourne 1979

Teaching Experience

A. In Schools:

Twelve years in Elementary and High Schools

B. In Teacher Education Institutions:

Nine years in a Teachers' College which became a State College which became a School of Education at a university.

One year teaching an evening up-grading course for teachers.

Two semesters teaching a practicum-related course in a Canadian university.

Other Relevant Information

Extensive teaching practice supervision carried out both as cooperating teacher during employment in schools and as faculty advisor during service in the teacher education institutions.